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THE SCHOOL JOURNAL

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Contents for May, 1913

| | | | |
|--|-----|--|-----|
| FACT AND COMMENT | 233 | THE EDUCATION OF THE COLORED PERSONS IN AMERICA—William E. Chancellor | 252 |
| SURVEY AND SUPERINTENDENT—William E. Chancellor | 235 | DEVELOPING A SCHOOL SYSTEM—Charles S. Meek | 255 |
| THE POINT OF VIEW—Welland Hendrick | 236 | SCHOOL CREDIT FOR HOME WORK—L. R. Alderman | 258 |
| THE MONTHLY ADDENDA | 238 | CURRENT EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE | 262 |
| EN ROUTE—Montanye Perry | 240 | BOOKS OF THE DAY | 263 |
| MY DIARY—Mary Warwick | 244 | SCHOOL LEGISLATION OF 1913 | 266 |
| SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT IN THE SCHOOLS —F. E. Spaulding | 247 | | |

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Educational News

The play, "Damaged Goods," was given last month at the National theater in Washington, D. C., with the avowed object of teaching a lesson in sex hygiene. Cabinet officers, judges of the supreme court, representatives and senators were in the audience. The performance was preceded by prayer and applause during the play was not allowed.

Pupils in the Detroit public schools have been excluded from attendance for failure to be vaccinated.

Dr. William I. Thompson, president of the Asbury Park board of education, was assaulted by another member of the board, at the meeting of April 5. His scalp was split open by the chair which his assailant used as a weapon.

Newton C. Dougherty, former superintendent of schools at Peoria, Ill., and later an inmate of the Joliet prison, has lost the first of a series of suits to recover property turned over by him as compensation for his peculations. The Peoria Press remarks that the loss of the suit "will stand as a precedent in the other proceeding, but both of them go to show the magnificent gall and the brazen effrontery of the man who robbed the Peoria school board of three-quarters of a million dollars."

The grade teachers' club, comprising 1,250 elementary teachers of Cleveland, is accused by members of the board of education of dabbling in politics and planning a strike. This the teachers deny. Their appeal for an increase of salary has been denied.

John Wanamaker is now a member of the Philadelphia board of education. Because he had been awarded a contract for furnishing desks and window-shades to the amount of \$300 his right to a seat in the board was in question. The contract was annulled.

The vote for circuit judge in Milwaukee county was 28,500.

The vote for state superintendent of schools in Milwaukee county was 23,272.

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Women could vote for the state superintendent.

Where were they?—Milwaukee Free Press.

Freeport, L. I., N. Y., is building a new high school costing \$150,000. It has 7,000 population.

A great anti-vaccination campaign is on in Evansville, Ind.

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FACT AND COMMENT

The famous Edgell case has been discussed by the newspapers in all parts of the country. The merits of the affair seem plain and well defined. The New York board of education, which permits married women to teach in its schools, refuses to allow such a woman teacher a leave of absence for the purpose of bearing and rearing a child. This action is difficult to defend. If a married woman is to be allowed to teach she should not have a premium put upon her childlessness. It is contended that the New York authorities were consistent in their action in that they had tried to dismiss women teachers who married and had been reversed by the courts. What they tried to do may have been altogether proper; that is not the point under discussion. The fact is that married women teach in their schools under the protection of the law and despite the board of education. Their attempt to nullify in part the construction of the law puts them at variance, not, perhaps, with the law, but with the fundamental notions of the human race.

* * *

In the plethora of letters and interviews printed on the subject of married women in the schools there is a discouraging lot of them that discuss the subject from the assumption that the school is for the teacher. "We do not want these women with husbands in the schools" is the burden of the comments; "we want the places for the young women who must support themselves." In this bright day of the world, when even postmasters are being picked for their ability to serve the public, it might be expected that in the domain of education the question, Who can best teach the children? ought to dwarf every other consideration. Can it be true that the educational department of our government clings more tenaciously than any other to the idea that its salaried positions are to be distributed to the necessitous? As above said, we are not discussing the matter of married women in the teaching business, but, were we considering that subject, the matter of what they do with their salaries would have no bearing upon the question. When men argue, as they sometimes do, against the equal pay proposition on the ground that they have families to support, they make a petty plea. And it may not be out of place to remind those who plead

for the recognition of the struggling young women in their eager quest for a livelihood, that the candidates who crowd out the most of the unsuccessful strugglers are other young women, unmarried, with comfortable homes, who long for more ribbons and for other sweets of financial independence. And sure enough it is that a large number of our best teachers come from such homes of comfort.

* * *

It is not the matter of married women teaching, but of married women not teaching, that troubles Lodi, New Jersey. During the present school term in that place, it is said, there has not been a meeting of the board when a neatly written little resignation of some school teacher was not received, with the explanation, "Because I am to be married." When the latest epistle of this kind was received, the chairman of the teachers' committee said:

What are we going to do? The ranks are being diminished so rapidly that I guess we will have to employ married men next term to guarantee that school work will be carried on.

But why married men? When unmarried men marry they have to teach all the harder.

* * *

It is reasonable to suppose that the school specialist is just as important in his field of endeavor as the legal specialist or the medical specialist is in his. I have been a teacher, a principal, a superintendent of schools. Therefore, I believe I am more competent to manage a school, and to say what is best for a school, than either a lawyer or a doctor or a business man. If I am not more competent than either of these for this business, then there is no place for me in the schools; I am a failure, and someone else, a doctor, a lawyer or a business man, should be put into my place.

These remarks of a schoolman, taken from the Brooklyn Eagle, contain nothing new or strange or disputable. They are simply well said and so worth repeating.

* * *

Some thirty years ago the ratio of girls to boys in a certain private academy was two to one; to-day the ratio is one to ten, with the girls fast approaching the vanishing point. That point has been reached in another private school situated similarly to the one mentioned, and this second school has become a boys' academy

with prosperity attending. The first school hardly flourishes; and its principal, invited to tell why his girls are disappearing, has no conclusive theory to submit. Will some reader, someone connected with the private schools, perhaps, help out on these questions?

Has the increase of high schools at their side doors inclined the parents to keep their girls at home?

Have they continued to send their boys away to school because they are boys, or because the private schools, as in the case of the two mentioned, keep up and even increase their ratio of men teachers?

Is co-education in the secondary schools a failure?

* * *

Principal Armstrong, of the Englewood, Ill., high school, has tackled the co-educational problem with a movement to segregate the sexes, and has been called for so doing a reactionary. His defense is that

Girls of fourteen are much further developed than boys of the same age, and so in mixed classes boys are at a disadvantage. Teachers nearly always arrange the class work from the standpoint of the more advanced students. Consequently he found girls were giving tone to the courses, even where the work offered was not especially what the girls wanted. He discovered, further, that the particular needs of both boys and girls were being overlooked in the composite instruction.

The first step was to reorganize the teaching in physics and chemistry. Boys who expect to go into technical schools want different things from their sisters, who are studying household arts and science in preparation for future homemaking or motherhood. Girls who are preparing to go to college or to the normal schools have still other necessities, and the same remark holds for boys intending to enter business.

Following this theory with practice, the ratio of boys increased in the Englewood school and their scholarship improved more noticeably still. It is not, the principal concludes, a matter of relative ability but of different needs.

* * *

A curious back eddy in the socialistic stream, setting toward pensions for mothers, may be observed in Cook county, Illinois. The board of education of LaGrange bars the seventy-nine orphans of the state masonic home from its free schools, and the trustees of the institution properly refuse to pay tuition. They do, however, of necessity pay a school tax, a sum sufficient to cover the salary of a teacher. The courts will decide.

* * *

The salaries of the grade teachers in Sioux City, Iowa, have been increased to a maximum of seven hundred and twenty dollars. That city stops where New York begins.

* * *

The teachers of Minnesota, through their state associations, are asking for a teachers' agency adjunct to the office of the state super-

intendent. They estimate that fifty thousand dollars are annually going to private agencies for work that the state could do for thirty-five hundred. The project is good and some realization is inevitable. But let the teachers not deceive themselves; there is no such margin of profit or waste in the agency business as their figures imply. The business is not run by desks and card catalogues, but by men who for the most part have taught, who know what good teaching is, and who hustle about the country looking for good places, which are fairly plentiful, and for good teachers, who are few.

The complaint that the commission must come from the poor teacher who wants a job or a better job is touching; but as a business proposition the poor teacher is often most likely to become the well-to-do teacher by putting up that five per cent.

There is much that a state department can do in the line of securing positions for teachers; but when all the states are doing that much, the private agencies will still be doing big business for those who have business sense and who are not content to sit back and wait for the government, which has educated them and trained them, to find them a job.

* * *

While the percentage of men teachers has been diminishing from twenty-five to less than ten, there has been an assumption, comfortable to some, that the ranks of the superintendents would withstand the invasion of women. That idea will have to be revised, as suggested by the incident of the election of Miss Elizabeth W. Murphy to the assistant superintendency of the Chicago schools in the place of William M. Roberts. The entire system of that city is now under the control of two women.

Wyoming, with a woman state superintendent and deputy, has but one male county superintendent, and Montana has no more. New York has forty-two women among its district superintendents where a few years ago there were but twelve women among the then school commissioners. Iowa, Kansas, Nebraska, North Dakota and Oklahoma show a similar change.

As for the matter of men superintendents, it will soon be difficult or impossible for young men aspiring to such positions to get experience in grade teaching; and there are those who insist that such experience is an essential qualification.

The Fourth International Congress on School Hygiene will be held in Buffalo, August 25-30. It is the aim of the organizing committee in charge to bring together at Buffalo a record number of men and women interested in improving the health and efficiency of school children, and to make this congress—the first of its kind ever held in America—one of direct benefit to each individual community. The Buffalo citizens' committee has planned for a series of social events, including receptions and a grand ball, a pageant in the park, and excursion trips to the great industrial plants, and to Niagara Falls.

SURVEY AND SUPERINTENDENT

By WILLIAM E. CHANCELLOR.

With but one exception known to me, the effect of every school survey so far has been to disturb and in nearly every case within a year or two to dislodge the city superintendent of schools. It is an interesting situation and significant to every school superintendent.

The school survey in Baltimore two years ago was soon followed by an upheaval skilfully directed to the summary ouster of the city superintendent. When, three months ago, the school survey was ordered in Portland, Oregon, the superintendent, who had been in office several decades, did not wait for its beginning, but promptly filed his resignation to take effect upon the option of the board of education.

It is a matter of indifference whether or not the survey is *prima facie* complete, and it is equally a matter of indifference whether or not the superintendent is competent, for the superintendent almost at once always goes out or is put out. The reasons for this are two, and are obvious. The general public always holds the head teacher responsible for the condition of the schools.

School surveys are never begun save where there is already trouble of some kind. A survey is a declaration of war. The other reason is that every city school superintendent has both enemies and opponents. It cannot be otherwise. These enemies and opponents are quick to seize upon every defect or alleged defect as evidence that the city superintendent is a handicap or a menace or a figurehead or a czar, whose presence is undesirable.

It is quite useless to wish the case otherwise. In the present temper of the American public the survey is the fashion. How long the fashion will last no man may predict. While the fashion rages and reigns the superintendent is powerless.

The New York school inquiry is a case in point, a most serious case. Its aim as it is being managed in the metropolis by the general and the school politicians is *ad hominem*. The objective is to secure a different city school superintendent. It is perfectly true that the New York school surveyors spoke kindly and in some phrases gracefully of the superintendent in office. All that is discounted by the enemies and opponents of the existing system as dust in the eyes, a blind, a subterfuge, as mere politeness.

In this second decade of the twentieth century in America the situation of the city school superintendent has one new and hitherto unknown terror. Any day a survey will be ordered. The surveyors will be highly praised by their promoters as impartial. But it is the impartiality of ignorance of the facts of the situation, the impartiality of indifference to the human side of the situation.

Behind the surveyors are two strong motives

—weekly pay running from seventy-five to three hundred dollars, and the hope of fame. Is not the head of the survey higher than the head of the school system? Is not his fame exploited every few days upon the front pages of the city dailies?

I have regarded this matter for two years or more since the fashion began. It gets before me now as a simple position which I submit to the judgment of my profession.

In the common law as a matter of right, a man is to be judged by his peers. No superintendent should be subjected to the jury trial of persons less than his peers.

I am not contending for that higher law of every science, art and philosophy with which I am not as yet familiar, which is that the accused should be judged only by his superiors. This is perhaps too high an ideal for American democracy at its present stage. But is it not clear that no school superintendent should be subjected to the steady assault of his professional inferiors?

For these school surveys, college professors and disengaged teachers of other ranks and often in other occupations are usually chosen. The salary and the fame are tempting. Theirs is the opportunity to make points. And they set about making them gaily and nonchalantly. The stuff makes good newspaper material for reporters and copy editors. Down goes the city school superintendent before bills in state legislatures and resolutions in the city councils and boards of education. He goes into retirement and hunts another job, another kind of job.

The average term of city school superintendents as shown by statistics from 1890 to 1910 was three and a half years. From 1910 to 1930, while the fashion of school surveys prevails, it will be less. This will make glad the hearts of city hall politicians who can handle new men, but are afraid of those few of long tenure.

In this era of politics the school surveyors are indeed making for publicity; but they are also brave disintegrators. They will bear watching.

A bulletin has been issued by the Massachusetts Agricultural College descriptive of the sixth annual summer school of agriculture and country life, July 1-29. Extended courses will be offered for the benefit of the many people who wish a general knowledge of theoretical and practical agriculture and who can come to the college conveniently during the summer season. Special attention will also be given to the needs of teachers. There will be several new features this summer to keep the school abreast of the times. Among them will be a summer camp for boys, designed to interest boys in agriculture and rural life, to impress on the boy his responsibility as a member of society and to teach him clean, wholesome sports and recreation. The camp will be under military discipline. A bulletin will be sent on application to W. D. Hurd, Amherst, Mass.

THE POINT OF VIEW

A Curious Mixture

Statements sound and unsound were made by the new president of the board of education in the city of New York, Thomas W. Churchill, in his inaugural address.

There was education before there were commissioners or superintendents, but there was never a school, or schooling, without a teacher.

True, very true; but it is not, pedagogically speaking, considered good form to mention the fact.

The history of education reeks with failures springing from the imposition of systems devised by experts centered upon their own theories, and out of touch with the times.

True again. But that is hardly the warrant for saying,

It would be a calamity for this board to relegate to any purely scholastic body the fundamental questions of what the children shall be taught and how they shall be trained.

How would it sound for a board of bank directors to put forth the proposition that "it would be a calamity for this board to relegate to a president and cashier the fundamental questions of the business policy of this bank?" And again, returning to educational matters, wouldn't it be a calamity for a board of education to relegate to any purely scholastic body the very teaching and training of the children?

We have suffered from inflexible and overloaded courses of study.

You have, you have—grievously suffered. But why conclude, therefore, that the doctors are all wrong and hike back to old women's nostrums for a remedy?

A Schoolman Goes Wrong in Civics

It cost the city of St. Paul \$118.30 to send its superintendent to the Philadelphia meetings. The Dispatch, of that city, which speaks disrespectfully of the trip as a junket, does not furnish the items; but there is a comfortable sum left after transportation is deducted. The total might have missed publication had not the superintendent's vouchers been drawn on the wrong fund. Superintendents should make a study of civics.

Moonshine and Taffy

If you would find easy fame for your school or your method, mix a generous amount of sentiment with your pedagogical product. Of course, unfathomable psychological language has still some potency; statistics never were so

unquestionably effective as in this day of investigations and reports thereof; but a little mixture of oozy sentiment will always carry far and wide.

Down in Rowan county, Kentucky, they have rural night schools. There is nothing specially new or striking in the idea. A writer in The School Journal argued eloquently for such schools a few months ago. But the Rowan county plan has found space in the papers east and west, north and south; all because of a little judicious sentiment put into the name and generously exploited in the canned educational literature emanating from Washington, D. C.

It is like this: The mountains of Kentucky, provocative of feuds and corn whiskey, neighboring peaks to the Tennessee mountains where Miss Murfree, alias Charles Egbert Craddock, mined much enticing fiction, have a flavor of romance. Electric lights being scarce in that hilly region, the night schools are set for moonlight nights. Inspiration: call them moonlight schools. So done, and the name and the fame of moonlight schools fly to the uttermost parts of our educationally daft land; and with the seductive name goes the story of Mrs. Dicie Carter—Dicie diminution for nobody-knows-what—aged eighty-eight, trudging faithfully over the hills, books and slate under her arm, and the little red schoolhouse showing up far away in the soft and glowing moonlight.

Moonshine in education will go further than moonshine whiskey; and that has quite a reputation.

Lest We Forget

And oh, dear brethren and sisters of the church pedagogical, let us, as the time goes on, not forget the mortal sin of *re-tar-da-tion*. While some of those who Jeremiahed a time back of its destructive horrors are busy explaining what is the matter with their machine-made courses of study, there has come a lull in the warnings thundered forth *ex-cathedra*. But the sin remains, the teachers' sin, and it will not do to imagine that the vice has been removed or the punishment remitted. True, in some favored spots, where the machine is big and all-compelling, there are classes and schools where a hundred and ten per cent are promoted. (This, of course, is a statistical hundred and ten per cent. Statistical hundred and ten per cents are quite possible.) But think not that all are safe in the anti-retardation fold.

Only a short time ago in Iowa—Iowa, chiefest state in literacy, in Pottawattamie county, Iowa, to be exact—an examination was set for one hundred and twenty-one rural school eighth-

graders. And of that company who aspired to be adjudged fit and meritorious for the high school, how many do you think passed? Just Rachel Clark and Ruthie Setz and Lyra Kirby and little Leland Starr. Their names are all in the papers, together with those of their dear teachers, which space does not compel me to omit. What do you think of that? Four. Retardation, ninety-seven per cent. One hundred and seventeen evidences of the incompetence of their teachers! And the worst of it is, not that there is evidently much of this sinful retardation left in the land, but that there are still rampageous scoffers, infidels, who do not believe in putting the educational grist through one mill and who rail at the uniform examinations and courses of study which rest on the sacred revelations of Pestalozzi and Froebel.

The Nobs Versus the Mob

The simplified spellers, encouraged by the ardency of their aspirations, have bitten off another mouthful before they have masticated their previous ample morsel. They seem to take the opinions and promulgations of educational associations and superintendents as actual accomplishments. So they are congratulating themselves over the announcement of Superintendent Brumbaugh, of Philadelphia, who is starting a campaign for simplified spelling—not, however, to the extent of writing it Brumbaw. For some reason the good doctor incidentally announces his faith in the quick coming of the millennium, by predicting that slang will soon be an institution of the past. What, then, shall we do for that one out of a hundred slang expressions which have come to good standing and invigorated our language? The mob will have to be reckoned with, even in education; its very name shows that. Slang is the safety valve; slang is the glad relief after suffering the tortures of pedagogical literature. Notice that body of learned educators coming forth from a meeting of the National Educational Association, where the latest jargon of the psychologist was hurled at them. If you listen, you will discover that those who have any life left are talking slang. They have to for relief. Our psychological experts do not like slang; no, for often one little word of it has punctured the wind bag of their two-hour discourse, and brought it to earth as helpless as Zeppelin 24.

Why not predict that our ludicrous pedagogical terminology will soon be an institution of the past? That would help us to dispense with slang.

A Mere Word

The governor of Florida says in his message to the legislature:

I have no doubt in my mind that a great many ladies would make most excellent local district school trustees. They are certainly interested in the welfare and education of the children. . . . I recommend the enact-

ment of a law which will permit them representation upon local school boards.

I take no issue with his excellency, the governor, on his statement of fact. The interest he mentions became noticeable about a year after the Lord made a lady for Adam. But from the literary point of view I do wish that governors would keep pace with railroad magnates, who have re-lettered their "Ladies' Rooms" to "Women."

A Definition

A cubist is a painter who has transferred to canvass the ideas, or alleged ideas, which for twenty years have passed current as pedagogical literature.

The Method of It

A popular family journal contains the following instructions for creating a culinary masterpiece:

Remove from a loaf of bread thin, transverse sections, perhaps a quarter of an inch in thickness. Apply to each an adequate film of butter, confining this to a single side. Prepare some flakes of ham, or other desirable flesh food, to an approximately equal superficies, and arrange the latter adherent to the butter of the former. Disperse upon the hammy surface occasional splotches or daubs of mustard or other suitable condimental flavoring, and then, reversing a spoon, reduce these to a general uniformity. Though hard to describe, the art or knack is soon caught.

Next apply to each of the buttered and hammed slabs a second slab, the second being not necessarily either buttered or hammed, so that the two bread sides will be exterior and the inner sides will remain coherent.

In consuming these dainties, do not separate the component parts, but bite boldly through the whole combination.

The context of this passage indicates that the journal quoted considers this a rather remarkable bit of expanded description. No, indeed; there are educational ham sandwiches whose method of making is inflated to fill a dollar-and-a-half book. And there is a macaroni sandwich that is to-day achieving the dimensions of a library.

WELLAND HENDRICK.

The United States Bureau of Education has issued Bulletin 1912, No. 28, prepared by County Superintendent Zebulon Judd, of Wake county, North Carolina, upon the cultivation of the school grounds of the rural schools. This is a most inspiring document, beautifully and adequately illustrated. It gives a complete account of the "school farm working bee." Wake county merits its name. Both its white and its colored schools are doing this splendid work.

State Superintendent L. R. Alderman, of Oregon, has a plan for all schools whereby excellent industrial or domestic work by children at home shall count toward school promotion. This is bringing home, farm, shop and school into definite correlation and is an admirable innovation. The whole life of the pupil should be considered. We do this as adults for ourselves.

THE MONTHLY ADDENDA

CHANGING GEOGRAPHICAL FACTS OF THE TIMES

Primitive Mexico

The political conditions in unhappy Mexico can be understood from some little items of the commercial situation. The facts here given were ascertained when the United States consul at Guadalajara was asked to report on the prospective market for American vehicles.

Outside of the cities of Mexico very few vehicles of any kind are used, as the roads are poor and fit only for single horses and mules, which carry passengers and freight on their backs. On many haciendas carriages are used for short distances by the families of the owners. In the cities the heavy traffic is largely carried on by two-wheeled carts drawn by mules, though in recent years the American wagon has come into use, especially by the municipal governments, to gather the refuse from the streets and houses. There is some demand for buggies and covered surreys in the cities, which is supplied through local houses by American makers. The weather here being usually clear and never very cold, closed carriages are not in great demand except for special occasions, such as weddings, hence few are sold; during the rainy season oilcloth covers are used in the victorias for protection against rain.

A country so poorly furnished with means of transportation could not be expected to have a highly organized machinery of government.

Americanizing Arabia

The United States consul at Aden notes that one of the gratifying features of Arabian commerce is the gradual extension of American trade into fields heretofore occupied almost exclusively by English, German, and Austrian competitors. The revolution has been of comparatively recent origin and promises much to American trade throughout the Red Sea region. American cotton goods, kerosene, and carriages have long been pre-eminent in this market, but of late so many other items have been added that a respectable showing in many new avenues of trade seems assured.

The twentieth century native is not only wearing American cotton sheetings, trimmed and cut by American scissors, and sewed on American sewing machines, burning American kerosene, riding in American carriages, but his children are now being rolled about in American collapsible baby carriages, while he also rides in public and private automobiles made in Detroit, uses American safety razors and strops, American garters, and American starch, harnesses his wells with American pumps and windmills, builds his houses with American expanded metal and American hammers, propels

his boats with New York oars, and when in his coffee shop sips his favorite beverage seated on an American chair, while somewhere in the hinterland the Sultan of the Abdali's family is riding in an American victoria.

There are other items, but the list would not be complete without mentioning two ten-seated American motor boats which have been ordered from the United States and which will be used in Aden harbor to take passengers between ship and shore as soon as the necessary license is obtained from the local authorities. These motor boats will give Aden something that has been long needed and will supplant the simple rowboat and the Somali oarsman. Thus picturesque sights give way to the march of progress.

Two cities are mentioned in the foregoing list as the seat of the manufactures. With a geography at hand, it would be worth while to find the places where the other articles were, or might have been, made.

Butter in Tubes

Yes, we mean tubes, not tubs. What would you think of buying butter in such a container as that used for vaseline or cold cream? It is in hot India that this idea originates. One of the difficulties in the dairy trade arises from the fact that butter deteriorates quickly when it is exposed to the air at Indian temperatures, and is so fluid that packing is not easy. When a tin is opened the whole of the butter deteriorates rapidly. Having regard to the comparative fluidity of butter at Indian temperatures, it seems possible that it might be packed in collapsible tubes of tin with screw nozzles similar to those in which printing ink, oil paints, and certain ointments are sold. From tubes of this kind as much butter as is required at a time might be expressed.

One expense arising in such trade arises from the fact that such tubes, if containing butter, might have to be made of pure tin, the reason being that the volatile fatty acids present act upon lead or copper and form poisonous and unsightly compounds. Illustrations, with quotations, for three sizes of machines for the manufacture and for the filling of these tubes have been obtained. The smallest of these tubes contains one-fourth pound of butter.

Whalers Busy in the South Seas

A recent number of the Honolulu Star-Bulletin informs us that Fijian waters are at present the scene of operation for a large number of whalers, judging from the story brought to Honolulu with the arrival of the British steamer *Kestrel*. It is said that in the vicinity of the

Fiji Islands whale fishing has been very successful of late, and that several American whalers will complete their loading with the season, and run for home with valuable cargoes. A few weeks ago five American whalers were at Kadavu and three at Yasawa obtaining supplies.

The New Route to Yokohama

Japan will reap a good share of the benefit to be derived from the Panama Canal. Let us do a little figuring on the result of opening this new waterway between Yokohama and New Orleans and New York. In comparing the route via Suez with that via Panama we find that, while the former covers the distance of 13,566 miles, the latter, or the route via Panama and San Francisco, is 9,798 miles and that via Panama and Honolulu is 10,096 miles. It will be seen that by the Panama route a distance of about 3,500 miles and the time of twelve days—twelve miles per hour—will be saved. The farther the port of destination is south of New York, the shorter will be the distance by the Panama route and the longer by way of Suez. While the distance between Yokohama and New Orleans is 9,212 to 9,517 miles by the Panama route, the distance via Suez is 14,924 miles—a difference of 5,000 miles or nineteen days.

The opening of the canal will thus shorten the distance between Yokohama and the ports of eastern and southern United States between 3,500 and 5,700 miles and the time by twelve to nineteen days for steamers of twelve knots. Not only Yokohama, but also Kobe, will be favored by the shortening of the distance and the time of transit.

Austria on the Sea

Our geographies must be revised in order to show Austria as a fast-increasing maritime power. The dispatches from the seat of war in Europe reveal the jealous desire of Austria for all possible outlets on the Adriatic. Already Trieste is a seaport to be reckoned with. The Austro-American line advertises in our papers weekly sailings from New York. Trieste has direct lines to Brazil and Argentina. And lately, last November, Austria-Hungary made a bold bid for the trade of Cuba by starting a monthly steamship service between Trieste and Havana. Cuba has been purchasing considerable quantities of Austrian products for several years, which have been usually shipped via German ports. The direct line from Trieste will bring lower freight rates, shorten the time of transit, and tend to increase the total of the trade between the two countries. Handling the merchandise will naturally be to the advantage of Trieste as a port.

How Jerusalem Cooks

The question, if there is a market for American stoves in Asiatic Turkey, brings from our consul at Jerusalem some choice bits of history and geography. And his observations are another reminder that, after all, the commercial instinct is at the base of all progress. To give

us an idea of the stove market this business man writes for us a really dramatic description:

In the Jerusalem consular district the inhabitants are divided into three distinct classes. First, the Bedouin, or nomad; second, the fellah, or farmer; and, third, the medany, or city people.

The Bedouin is constantly on the move with his tent home of goats' hair, and therefore carries no stove at all. Two or three stones serve to raise the copper pot, in which all meals are prepared, from the ground, and beneath the pot any wood, brush, or thistles which are at hand serve as fuel, and in the absence of these dried camel's dung is used. Their bread is quickly baked in thin sheet-like loaves on the upper surface of a circular convex utensil of thin sheet-iron placed over a smoldering fire with the convex side uppermost.

The "fellah" home, as a rule, is built with one room, which serves for all purposes. On one side a fireplace is built into the wall similar to the American old-style fireplaces, and in this, built of stone plastered with clay, is a tripod arrangement to hold the hand-made clay cooking-pot. Brushwood and thistles are the most common fuel. Their bread is baked in a low dome about thirty inches in diameter, made of unbaked clay mixed with stubble, without a bottom, resting on the ground, and with an opening in the top. It is placed in a small hut upon three or four small stones which raise it a couple of inches from the ground. The exterior of this dome is banked up with hot ashes, which are kept continually smoldering, the fuel used being dry manure.

The city people formerly used charcoal entirely for cooking purposes. This fuel was used in a small, portable stove called "tabakh," made of unbaked clay mixed with fine straw, and in shape like an ordinary flower-pot. Halfway up inside is a partition of the same material, full of holes, which allows the ashes to drop into the bottom section that is provided with a small opening or door which admits the air for draft and affords an opening for removing the ashes. On the outside of the "tabakh" are two small ledge handles to enable the cook to move it about readily. The largest of these "tabakhs" are not over twelve inches in diameter and capable of holding and heating only one copper pot at a time. Still, a city woman will serve quite a sumptuous dinner of many dishes cooked on four or five of these little stoves.

A woman of this class never stands to work if she can help it. Her kitchen is not provided with a chimney, so she starts a fire in the stoves and places them in the open court of the house until the fire is well started and the charcoal has ceased giving out poisonous fumes, when she moves them into the kitchen, places them on the floor in a half circle around her, and either sitting on her heels or on a low block or stool, or cross-legged on a cushion, prepares the meal. A round board some twenty inches in diameter and raised from the ground a few inches serves as a kitchen table.

But this picturesque charcoal stove, we are told, is fast going, because the charcoal is about gone. In its place comes American oil and the American oil stove. And the native woman, who up to the last ten years has cooked as she did in the days of Christ, has adopted foreign ways and tools, not because she likes them, but because she has to use them. She still asserts that the old way was better.

EN ROUTE

WHERE TO GO—HOW TO GO—AND WHAT'S TO PAY
CONDUCTED BY MONTANYE PERRY

The Call of the Springtime

Is there anyone in all the world who is so settled and sensible and fixed in his groove that the month of May brings no longing for adventure to his soul? If there is such a person, we are very sure he is not numbered among the readers of the En Route Department, so we will not address any remarks to him, but confine our attention to those who are blessed with the spirit of wanderlust.

Yes, we call the spirit of wanderlust a blessing. Where would the world's progress be if mankind was stripped of the love of change and adventure? Glance backward through the history-freighted centuries and see whether their most splendid achievements have been accomplished by staid, respectable, early-to-bed-and-early-to-rise citizens, who stayed at home and attended to their business. How about Alexander the Great and Christopher Columbus, Scott and Amundsen and a lot of other folks we could mention if we had time to go through our encyclopedia?

There are no statistics at hand to prove it, but we have not the slightest doubt that all of the old pilgrimages and crusades were started in the springtime. It may have taken some of the pilgrims or the crusaders so long to lock up their houses or fold up their tents and find an accommodating neighbor to 'tend the flocks or mind the market or feed the cat while they were away that it was late autumn before they really got started, but the idea of the expedition was conceived when nature was waking the earth from its winter's rest and the winds of May were blowing. The dullest ear catches the call of adventure in the springtime.

Don't You Hear It?

Of course you do. Perhaps you are too busy with final examinations, and commencement-day plans, to realize just what it is that is making you vaguely restless, sending your thoughts forward into the summer when they should be concentrated on the awful problems of promotion or retardation. It is the spirit of adventure that is calling to you.

What's the Answer?

Vacation time is upon us. What are we going to do with it? Most of you will have about ten weeks of blessed, well-earned leisure. Are you going to settle back in the same old groove, spending this vacation just as you have spent all the other ones, or are you going to answer the call of adventure, let the spirit of wanderlust develop, and take the journey that you have always been planning to make "sometime"?

Why Not?

If there is any class of people upon this earth

who need change of scene, broadening influences, inspiration and fun—just pure, old-fashioned fun—more than school teachers do, we should like to meet them. A good vacation makes for health, growth, greater efficiency, promotion, and—incidentally, of course—increased salaries. Why not plan this vacation with these things directly in mind, and why not let us help you?

First Aid to the Traveler

The editor of this department is longing for the chance to advise somebody. Her heart yearns toward folks who want to go somewhere—they are kindred spirits and she loves them all. And, as she has spent most of the time since she was four years old—and that is a considerable stretch of time—in going somewhere, she feels reasonably sure that her advice would be helpful. If you want to know where to go, how to go, how much it will cost, what to take with you, or any of the hundred other questions that rise to vex the traveler, ask her. A stamped envelope will bring a prompt reply, if you do not wish to wait for the next issue of the Journal.

Get Away from the Trail of the Tourist

It is all very well to take a conventional trip. There are certain places that every well-regulated traveler visits. The show places, the spots of historic, literary, or scenic interest, will always be the Mecca of every seeker for culture or for pleasure. They are inspiring, they are educative, they are "worth while," these noted specks on the great earth's surface—but the trail of the tourist is over them all. Let me urge you to turn aside now and then, leave the beaten path, take some seldom-traveled road and visit a spot where the scenery is not tourist-obscured, where the people are not tourist-spoiled. This is particularly important to the American who travels abroad. Often, by riding or walking only a few miles off the main traveled roads, one will find the most delightful, unspoiled little villages where the real life of the country may be seen. To illustrate this point, we are giving you this month the story of a day in Zug. The little village of Zug is not famous for anything, but the visitors gained there more knowledge of the actual life and customs of the Swiss than in all their sojourns in Lucerne, Interlaken, Geneva and the rest of the famous resorts.

A DINNER IN ZUG

We were dropping down from the dizzy heights of the Rigi, where we had slept so close to the stars that we surely could have reached from our windows and touched them, had they not been hidden by the fog, when I turned to

William with my coaxingest smile and most plaintive tone.

"I don't want to go to Zurich," I said.

William remained calm, as 'tis his nature to, and paused for reflection before he answered. I might mention here that William does all the reflecting for our family. After he had counted ten, he returned my smile and said: "Well, where do you want to go?"

"Some place where there's not a tourist to be seen," I replied promptly; "I'd like to see a really-truly Swiss village, that isn't dressed up for company."

A joyous expression stole over William's face as he reached into his bag and drew forth a time-table. I was not deceived. I knew that the joyous expression was not because William longed for the Swiss village, but because he loved his time-table so, and here was a chance to look up a perfectly new route. I waited anxiously.

"There's only one thing we can do, without breaking our schedule all up," he declared at last. "We can get off at Arth-Goldau and take a road that runs along the Lake of Zug, down to the village of Zug. We can spend about three hours there and get to Zurich in time to catch our train for Neuhausen, if you would rather have the time in Zug than in Zurich. I won't guarantee that Zug is entirely bereft of tourists, but it is not on the regular line of travel, and I guess it is as near an approach to a natural Swiss village as anything we could find."

So, down past the lovely, placid lake we went, an hour's ride from Arth-Goldau to Zug. And there we stepped out of ordinary, everyday life into a story-book world—a world as far removed from the Swiss cities and resorts that we had been visiting as the wee hamlet in the Catskills is from our vast, rushing New York.

The exterior of every house in Zug is fascinating. Set close together on narrow streets, where every native bows you courteous greeting, are quaint old houses. Set farther apart, on outlying streets, where sturdy, square-faced youngsters pause in their play to give a courteous "Guten-tag" to the stranger are quaint new houses. Alike, they were charming and stirred a desire to know their interiors. We longed for three weeks instead of three hours to spend in the friendly little town. A man who surely must have been the oldest inhabitant pointed with pride to the quaint tower where an ancient town clock had ticked decorously, with never a pause, since his great-great-great-grandfather was a babe; a wee lad led us to a menagerie of tame animals in the center of a tiny park, and a square-shouldered, squarer-jawed fisherman showed where the best view of the lake was to be had, and politely offered to lend William a rod and boat, if he wished to try for one of the lake salmon. All these little favors were offered with frank friendliness, with no apparent anxiety about the

contents of our purses, but with an evident desire to welcome the strangers with proper hospitality.

On one of the narrowest streets we came upon a cow ambling placidly along, dragging a cart which contained jars of her own milk. Stopping before an overgrown dollhouse, gaily painted in brown and red, she waited with much dignity for a maid who came from the rear of the house and carried away several of the jars. As we watched this novel peddler, the front door of the dollhouse opened and a short, pompous man appeared, bringing a large, white board. With deliberate impressiveness he proceeded to hang this board on a great hook which projected from the wall and, stepping back, viewed the effect with dignified complacency. The sign read:

MITAGESSEN ZU ZWEI MARK ZWOLF UHR

"Shall we eat here?" asked William. "It looks rather attractive."

Before I could reply the man turned from his contemplation of the sign and leisurely looked us over. "You will eat here," he then announced. "Dinner in ten minutes will be served. It is very good. You will be satisfied."

"Shall we?" I asked William.

"I don't see that we have any choice. He has it settled."

And, indeed, he was even then holding the door open for us and saying with decision, "You will walk in."

Accordingly we walked in and were immediately glad that we did. The hall which we entered was finished in dark oak, massive and shining; there were a couple of blue-and-white rag rugs on the floor, and two or three great ferns in gorgeous brass jars. Along one side ran a low, deep seat with blue cushions; up the other side went broad stairs, with solid, carved banisters. Everything was spotlessly clean and polished to the highest possible degree of brightness.

"You will walk upstairs," said our host.

Upstairs we meekly walked, entered the square dining-room, and again we were glad we had come. The sun poured in through double windows, lighting up the dark oak casements; bringing bright reflections from plates, jugs and steins ranged on top of the built-in cupboards; making golden rugs on the white, sanded floor; giving added life and glow to the bunches of yellow daffodils nodding in the center of the tables. Four long tables with spotless cloths and shining silver were already laid for dinner. In an alcove in the sunniest corner was a small, round table, with only a fringed cover and a great bunch of daffodils on it.

"I want to eat there," I said, "so I can look out of the window."

Our host gave me a rebuking look. "It is not usual to serve dinner on that table," he said gently, but very firmly.

"That settles it. My wife loves the unusual,"

said William promptly. "You can serve us there, can't you?"

He considered a moment, then assented with a resigned expression, and, conducting us to the desired table, placed a chair and turned to me, "You will sit here."

"But I want to look out of the window," I protested, whereat he gave me a look that said, "Was ever woman so unreasonable?" looked at William as if expecting him to discipline me, and seeing no sign of my subjugation moved the chair to the desired place and gave William one opposite me. Then he addressed himself to William.

"You will have soup and a fish; a fowl with vegetables, and a pie. It is good. You will be satisfied."

"Very well," said William, and our host disappeared, but was back in a moment to add impressively, "You will have red wine."

"His English is excellent," I remarked, "but do you suppose he always speaks in the imperative mood?"

"He decided at once that we needed a firm hand," replied William.

A plump little maid with long braids of yellow hair brought us a delicious soup in thick, blue plates. We ate it slowly, looking out the window at a half-dozen quaint children solemnly playing a game of marbles on the walks below. Across the street was a market, and women with baskets stood about gravely comparing purchases. There was no gay laughter nor frivolity in the air. Life in Zug seemed a grave business.

The fish's skin was silver gray, its flesh a deep pink. It was served whole on a wonderful old platter, accompanied by a flat bowl of beaten silver, containing a yellow sauce. It was so pretty that we hated to disturb it, but our host came in as we were looking at it. "It is a trout, caught in the lake of Zug. It is very good. You will eat it all," he directed, and withdrew.

So we ate it all, and this obedience was not a hardship.

The long tables were gradually filling up with decorous men and women, all of whom realized that the eating of one's dinner was not a matter to be taken lightly. There was little conversation, but always the courteous "Guten-tag" when one entered.

The little maid placed dishes of peas and potatoes and a bowl of salad before us. Presently our host appeared in the distance bearing an enormous baked fowl.

"Shall we have to eat all of that?" I gasped.

"We shall if he tells us to," rejoined William cheerfully.

But our host deposited the fowl on a side table, extracted a carving set from a drawer, and carefully served William a leg and a generous slice of breast. William's polite attempt to pass the plate to me was frustrated by the decisive remark, "That is for you. I will next serve the lady."

"I want a wing," I ventured boldly, as he prepared to slice off the other leg.

"The wing is not so good; the leg more meat on it has," he explained patiently. "You will eat the leg." And he actually gave me the leg and carried the fowl away again, William being too overcome with stifled laughter to come to my assistance.

"If we stayed here a week I should lose my henpecked expression," declared William when he was able to speak again.

Lastly we had the pie—a wonderful pie, unlike anything ever encountered before! It was the size and shape of a ten-quart pan, plastered with thick, white frosting, ornamented with cherries and nuts. It looked and tasted like a New England pound cake. The little maid beamed at us as she gave us great wedges, covered with a foaming wine sauce, and William beamed back. William adores sweets.

"I hate to go away from here," I sighed, as we slowly drank the red wine. "It's such a dear, queer little town. I'd love to stay right here in this inn for a month."

"You'd be a changed woman," asserted William solemnly, "if the present discipline was maintained."

We were leaving Switzerland that day and my eyes were a trifle misty as we went down the broad stairway to the street door. "Probably I'll never see dear little Zug again," I thought dolefully, but our host's parting words reassured me. Standing in the open doorway, with a look and tone of placid confidence, he said, "Good day. You will come again."

THE COUNTRY OF LITTLE BLACK COWS

By DOROTHY DONNELL

The only way really to see Holland is to view it from the deck of a canal boat, which winds its ponderous way in and out by front doors with shining brass knockers, through back yards and meadows and among the quaint steeples and stores of the tiny Dutch fishing hamlets. One gains as intimate a knowledge of the life of the country in this way as from the windows of an elevated train meddling through the second-story lives of East Side New Yorkers.

The cities of Holland are chiefly remarkable for not being as clean as they are reported to be, but the country is as fascinating as the prints of Hobbema's landscapes and Ruysdael's frothy waterfalls and tumbling mills. It is the fascination of monotony—of levels, unbroken to the skyline except by goblin-armed windmills or rough straw stacks. Hills in Holland are as few as horses in Venice. Instead, as far as one can see are flat meadow floors and marshy fields of a startlingly vivid green, laced by crooked waterways and dotted with the little black-and-white cows of Holland. I have never seen such small cows outside of a toy-shop, but they may seem so partly because all the other animals are so large. In one field I saw an enormous brown

jack-rabbit with long, inquiring ears sitting on his hind legs beside a cow so tiny that it seemed almost the same size. Pigs, sheep and horses dwell with the cows in friendly proximity, unhampered by fences or stone walls. It is touching to ponder on the childlike faith a Dutchman must have in the honesty of his neighbor, for he builds little bridges across the canals between their fields and allows the two herds to mingle as one family. All the animals have a well-scrubbed look, as has everything else washable in the Holland countryside.

As our boat bumped along the canal the inhabitants ceased work and, hands on hips, regarded us in stolid curiosity. A row of bulky, red-faced youngsters in comic-opera trousers and shoes sat on the bank and sang weird words for our gratification and delight. An English lawyer of more than the ordinary intelligence interpreted the melody as "Has Anybody Here Seen Kelly?" which the children evidently regarded as the American national anthem and therefore likely to be a source of revenue.

In the next field a group of sturdy haymakers were pitching the ripe, coarse hay onto the decks of scows to be later poled down the canal to the barns. As a row of cameras was leveled at them along the deck they paused in their task, leaning on their rakes with the conscious grins of rustic simplicity—grins which were picturesque but misleading, for at the snap of the shutters along the line their simplicity was replaced by businesslike demands for payment. Alas! the peasants of Holland are tourist-spoiled! We have taught them the commercial value of their wooden sabots, their starched caps and kilted petticoats.

Vegetables, flowers and milk-products seem to be the chief results of Holland farming. Every low, plastered farmhouse is a little island in a vegetable patch;—long rows of blue cabbages hint of wooden kegs of odorous sauerkraut to come, carrots, beets and turnips wave their plumes above rows of lemon squashes and dwarf beans. In the early mornings flat barges heaped with vegetables and fruit float silently down into Amsterdam through a hundred locks and beneath a score of bridges.

Sometimes the fields are streaked with the vivid red of peonies, or the varicolored blaze of tulip beds. And always in the midst of the beds of bloom the stocky house-wives stand, arms akimbo, to watch the boat of strange foreign folk steam by. Holland is a sort of sketch in charcoal and crude colored chalks—a poster country of impressionistic effects. The people are too picturesque to be true. Like the countryman who saw a giraffe for the first time, we are tempted to exclaim, "Why, there ain't no sech things!" The architecture of the Dutchman is of the substantial, square order—even the children are square and apparently put together at the corners, like fascinating little wooden toys. The sight of one broad native pedaling rapidly along the canal path, on a bicycle, his full blue pantaloons floating out

in the breeze, his wooden shoes clattering on the pedals, was an unexpected but welcome addition to our picture collection.

As the afternoon grew dusky we began to see the milkmaids in the fields with their buckets hung on a frame across their shoulders, and their three-cornered stools in their hands. A Holland dame is never seen without something in her hands, sometimes a broom, sometimes a pail, but more often it is her knitting—eternal gray yarn stockings always in the process of construction. I wonder if they reckon their time by them—two stockings ago—five stockings from now? They knit as they watch the herds in the fields, as they trudge along the canal paths and in the narrow streets of the towns.

Home from market came the dog-carts, empty cans rattling, with a whole family—fat father, mother and children—sitting on top of the load and an infinitesimal dog almost invisible beneath it. Poor little hard-working dogs deprived of the rightful joys of their doghood! Few Holland farmers use horses—their boats are their horses and the dogs answer the purpose for marketing.

Good country odors crept out to us from the yards where the straw stacks tower above the house-roofs and the thatched windmills grind and creak monotonously—odors of fresh cheeses and buttermilk. A small child peeping curiously around a door opened to our view a low, dim interior hung with swinging shelves of hard red cheese-balls ready for the marketplace. And in the pools of the marshes the weird-looking, grotesque flamingoes and stringy-legged cranes flapped sleepily, uttering their lonely night cries.

The last lock before the city swung open—then closed after us. A progressive Dutchman standing on the lock gate played "America" and variations—chiefly variations—on a shrill, wheezing flute and fished hopefully for the fruits of his toil among the tourists with a net on the end of a long pole. Before us lay the city—very dingy after the spotlessness of the fields and farms; behind there was now visible only one solitary windmill flinging its long arms restlessly against a streaky crimson sky.

Answers to Questions

D. N. V., Lancaster, Pa.

Scheveningen is a fashionable Dutch bathing place and fishing village—the latter is by far the most interesting part of the town to the traveler. It may be reached by the electric tram cars which leave The Hague every fifteen minutes, although the carriage drive out from The Hague is very enjoyable, if one does not mind the added expense. The tram cars afford the same pleasant view of the way, and the fare is only ten cents.

C. M. D., Bethany, W. Va.

Take a passport. Circumstances may occur which will render one absolutely necessary. Ad-

(Continued on page 246)

MY DIARY

BY MARY WARWICK

Mary is the youngest daughter in the large family of a prosperous middle west farmer and banker. She desires to see the world, and teaches in two schools near her home, and then goes to academy and college. Her father's death gives her the means to set out to the great city.

CHAPTER VII

INTO AND OUT AND INTO HARNESS AGAIN

Poor old diary! Some of you is ink, and some of you is pencil. Some of you is scrawly handwriting, and some of you is calligraphy; but none of you is fit to print. How you vary in mood! Sometimes you are so discouraged, and sometimes you are a hurricane of enthusiasm.

I just never could be calm and sensible until the very worst things had happened and made me so old, so very old; the way I am now.

No, dear old diary, I shall not publish you, word for word, just as I made you. Don't be afraid! I'm not going to put outside my innermost inner. That is vulgar, isn't it? But I am going to read you and then write the way things seemed to me then; and perhaps a little the way things seem to me now.

It is twenty years ago, more or less, that I set out for a teachers' college or school of pedagogy in New York city. By that time I had seen only Detroit and Toledo and Cleveland and Philadelphia. Mead College was the best that I knew. It did not seem good enough for me. I wanted the very best and biggest that America had.

Brother Sam gave me six New York drafts of one hundred dollars each, and my railroad tickets and fifty dollars in cash, to stay one year, and see how I liked the big university in New York. He was very kind to me; he always was. Of course, this was really my own money, my father's money, and I had a right to it. Besides, there was enough of my inheritance left for almost all of a second year. I didn't stop to think how I was ever to stay three years and get my degree. I was young and full of hope and faith. Indeed, I was very young to try to live in New York city. It's hard enough now to get along alone in a country town when you are less than twenty years old; and I guess now it's impossible in New York city. It wasn't quite so bad, however, twenty years ago.

I had to find a room to live in, and first I had to find a hotel where I could stay while I was looking for a room. You see, the teachers' school had no dormitory like Mead College, and the office clerks didn't care much about any students. The first hotel I tried to get into was too expensive even for one day. They wanted a dollar and a half for one room on what they

called "the European plan." I couldn't pay that. The next hotel wouldn't take girls or women unless they had some men relatives with them. The next wouldn't let me in because, I guess, my hair was almost red. But at last I found a lovely, quiet hotel where they took me for a week for four dollars provided I would eat breakfast there for twenty-five cents each day. I had a nice little room way up on the seventh floor. I stayed there a whole week, until I got acquainted with some of the older girls at the school and went to board with three of them at a house where we could stay for room and meals for eight dollars a week each, two in a room.

I didn't know how to board. I didn't know how to get along with a roommate, though I had managed to do so at Mead College.

Then, oh! how I missed my country walks! I used to try to walk on Broadway and then on Fifth avenue. Sometimes I would go up to the new Grant's Tomb. After three or four weeks I used to make plans to see objects of interest. That was the only way I could get myself to go out into the air. I learned how to go about upon the L roads and to use the cable and new electric cars.

I was perfectly astounded to find out how much cash money I had to have in order to live in New York city. It was a nickel here and a dime there and a quarter yonder whenever I turned around. It was newspapers and laundry and carfares, magazines, sodawater, peanuts, chocolate caramels—to help out the board—a new ribbon, something or other all the time. The tuition was one hundred fifty dollars a year. It had been only sixty dollars at Mead College. I paid for one-half year as soon as I came. Then books! Why, my books and notebooks and incidental fees cost thirty dollars the first month!

It just dawned on me why a man who was well-to-do in my town was poor in New York city, and why a man like my father was rich in the country, only in the country. Even twenty years ago one hundred thousand dollars wasn't much in New York city.

Well, the studies? Oh, we had two fine professors, fine, and one was fair, and one was very, very poor. The professors didn't seem even to know one another.

We heard our lectures and held our recitations anywhere and everywhere in the college and rented buildings. The teachers' school was new. It was in its beginnings.

That fall I studied biology and began German and heard some lectures in universal history and went on with higher mathematics. We had a lot of extra lectures on pedagogy and

the history of education. We had to visit schools, including kindergartens. We had plenty to do.

Thanksgiving day I was dreadfully lonely. All the girls in our boarding-house either went home or else were invited to visit friends in New York city or nearby towns.

I managed to pull along until Christmas. Then I was homesick and heartsick enough to kill me. I thought I couldn't stand it any longer. The semester would end the first day of February; and then I must pay the second half-year tuition. I saw that I would have only twenty dollars cash to live on for seventeen weeks, and not enough money to get home. I was so dreadfully worried that I did not do well in my semi-annual exams. I couldn't sleep. I got A in biology, B in German, C in history, which I hated, and D, failure, in mathematics. Oh, me, I couldn't succeed! I knew I couldn't.

You see, there was another trouble.

I haven't told what the real matter was. Brother Sam had married a sister of that Henry Okkerford, and she had made him move to Pittsburgh and start a store there. And Sam wasn't doing well in that store. It wasn't located right.

Sam kept writing heartbroken and heart-breaking letters to me. He knew that he had made two great mistakes, though he wouldn't say so.

I thought and thought and thought about it. I didn't pay my next semester's bills. Instead, I went to three teachers' agencies, paid three registration fees, and wrote letters of application to a score of school superintendents and school boards. I asked the professors to help me. At last, in March, I secured a position. Then I was happy, so happy! I was to teach an eighth-grade class in a small city about fifty miles from New York.

I had visited public graded schools, and I knew several city school teachers.

My salary was to be sixty dollars a month; and I paid a commission of thirty dollars for the ten months' contract. I was sure that I could save two hundred dollars a year in that position.

The next Monday, March, 189—, I moved out to Wellington, and went to the superintendent's office. I had seen him before at the teachers' agency.

When I saw him the second time he seemed to me such a strange man. I didn't know why. He was tall and very thin and wore gold spectacles. I thought that he was forty or fifty years of age. He had very black hair with some gray in it, and he spoke very softly.

His office was beautiful. He had a mahogany desk and a man office-clerk and a young woman stenographer.

He told me to sit down, and I sat down; then for an hour he told me all about my class. The pupils were nearly all foreigners, Germans and Russian Jews, Irish and Hollanders. He ex-

plained to me that the lower grades were full of Hungarians, Italians and other nationalities; but they never tried to stay in school after they were fourteen years old and had completed fifth grade. His state had compulsory education and compulsory vaccination. His schools had manual training and domestic science.

The class had just lost a fine teacher, who had been promoted to high school. The regular salary in all the upper grammar grades was seven hundred and fifty dollars a year; but his board of education was short of money to finish the year, and so they had agreed to let him get a beginner who was smart but would work for less than the regular pay. If I succeeded, I would get sixty-five dollars beginning in September. Besides that, after the first year, I was to get pay twelve months in the year, at the rate of sixty-two and a half dollars every month. It seemed wonderful to me.

But he told me that none of the regular teachers was willing to take promotion in grade at reduced pay or to take that class anyway. It was on the edge of the city, a mile from the street-car line, but near a railroad station. He wished me to go out there and live in that neighborhood.

I agreed, of course. I had paid my agency commission.

So I went out there. It was a brand-new schoolhouse of twenty rooms. An old woman was principal. They had slate blackboards and adjustable seats. The walls were glaring white.

Some way, I wasn't frightened when I looked at those children. They all smiled when I spoke to them. They seemed to like my voice; they seemed to like me.

I had no trouble in finding room and board in a clerk's family. They said that they were very poor. There were four nice children in the family. The mother was faded out. The father seemed old and worn. Later, I found that he earned twenty dollars a week and had to work twelve hours every day and fifteen hours on Saturday. He was always tired. My board at twenty-two dollars a month would almost pay their house-rent, and they gave to me the second-story front, the best room in their cottage.

Their plot of ground had space for a little vegetable garden, and the two boys were going to plant vegetable seeds as soon as spring came.

At school, I had to teach United States history, general and review geography, review and commercial arithmetic, spelling, reading, music, which I loved; drawing, of which I knew nothing; language, grammar, government, which I did not understand; physiology and hygiene, which I liked; spelling, writing, manners, ethics, and get some of the pupils ready for high school examinations in June.

It was a splendid class. I came to love every one of those boys and girls.

I had been there about ten days, when a little

boy came from another room and said quietly, "Superintendent's here," and then he vanished as quietly as he came. I learned afterwards that this was the regular system of self-protection among the teachers. This was the signal to make the pupils sit up and do their best so as to make the superintendent think well of the teachers.

They were all so afraid of him!

About an hour later the superintendent came in quietly as a snowstorm on a wet winter day. He did not say one word, not even "Good-morning!" He stayed five or five and a half minutes.

At noon, oh, how the teachers talked and gossiped about him! Really, I had heard scarcely a word about him until that noon intermission.

They told me that he was a wonderfully learned man, that he had studied three years after college and had gotten a doctor's degree in Europe, that his wife had died within a year after his election in Wellington, that he fixed the promotion pay and the transfers of every teacher, that he made fine speeches, that he controlled the board of education without their knowing it, that he had two boys, that his sister kept house for him, that he had refused several college professorships, and so many, many other things about him as to make my head swim. They said that the city hall crowd was after him, and would get him.

That night I thought a deal about the superintendent. How could I help it?

But I forgot nearly all that they said, for next morning in my mail I received two letters. One came from my unfortunate sister Bess, who told me that her husband had taken all her money from father and paid off his debts. Now they hadn't any money. She asked me to send her ten dollars for herself and children, to keep body and soul together. Of course I sent the money that very day. The other came from Sam. It was a confession that in order to save himself from bankruptcy he had used up the rest of my inheritance. I looked over my purse very carefully. I had still just two hundred and fifty dollars left.

But I had my position, and I was happy. Only, I didn't like that old principal. She kept coming into my room to tell me how to do this and that differently, and kept dinging the high school exams. into my ears, and into my pupils' ears. I resolved to go to the city hall the very next Friday at the superintendent's office hours and tell him all about everything. I knew that he would understand and sympathize.

Of course, Friday came, and that old principal saw me go out early.

"Oh!" she exclaimed, "you're going off to the chief's office! That is the way all the beginners do. Don't forget, child, I've seen eight different chiefs already. They come and go like birds of passage. Better make friends with the board and the city hall crowd. Still, child, he's only thirty-four and he will marry again.

You're like all the pretty beginners. You've ideas in the back of your gold-red head."

I guess my answer wasn't very polite. What I said was, "You think a lot of things that no one else thinks."

EN ROUTE

(Continued from page 243)

dress a letter to the State Department, Passport Bureau, Washington, asking for the printed form for application. Passports are necessary if one is suddenly called on to prove his identity, and they are useful in securing admission to public buildings, private art galleries, etc.

C. M. M., Holyoke, Mass.

For your five-day sojourn in Ireland: From Queenstown go by the river steamer to Cork. Take a jaunting car from Cork to Blarney Castle (about 3s. there and back). From Cork to Killarney is about three hours' ride by rail (cost 8s. 4d.). The ideal route if one had time is from Cork to Macroom by rail, thence by jaunting car to Glengariff, Kenmare and Killarney, but this requires two days. Go from Killarney to Dublin (seven hours by rail, fare 25s.). In Dublin one may choose between the through services to London; but most Americans prefer the one via Kingstown.

C. M. L., Poughkeepsie, N. Y.

New York to Boston by trolley is a twenty-hour trip if the trolley traveler pushes steadily onward and has no delay in changing cars. Its cost each way is about three dollars. For comfort, the traveler should take either three or four days and make the trip leisurely. One may do the New York-Boston tour comfortably for from fifteen to twenty dollars, this sum including the return fare, side trips and hotel bills. A satisfactory division of the trip is: first day, New York to New Haven, Conn.; second day, to Springfield, Mass.; third day, to Boston.

B. M. C., Evansville, Ill.

The most satisfactory plan, since you have only one week for your trip to the Rockies, would be to go directly to Colorado Springs, which may be reached in nine hours from Chicago. Establish headquarters there for three days, visiting Colorado City, Pikes Peak, Cripple Creek, South Cheyenne Canyon, Seven Falls and Helen Hunt Jackson's grave. Take the carriage ride over the High Drive and the Crystal Park auto trip. Go from Colorado Springs to Denver for a three days' stay. From Denver take the Georgetown Loop trip to Silver Plume, through Clear Creek Canyon and Idaho Springs. Make the Moffat Road trip to Arrow, passing over the Continental Divide, with its wonderful mountain scenery. Take the touring Denver auto trip. On the third day, go by train to Boulder, visit the Colorado State University, then take a carriage ride along the foothills to Eldorado Springs, returning to Denver in time for your eastbound train.

SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT IN THE SCHOOLS

BY F. E. SPAULDING, PH.D., NEWTON, MASS.

School systems are managed and may be improved both from without and from within. Fundamental principles to be observed in improving both their external and their internal management have been outlined for us by Professor Hanus. The observance of such principles of external organization, support and control as Professor Hanus lays down makes theoretically possible the unhampered practice of scientific management within the school system. It is to this phase of the subject, the improvement of the school system from within, that I now invite your attention.

As we recall the familiar stock examples of scientific management that come to us from the material industries—such as the moving of pig-iron, the laying of brick, and the cutting of metals—as we recall the multitude of stopwatch observations and experiments, the innumerable, accurate measurements and comparisons of processes and results, out of which after many years these examples have grown, we may be pardoned if we feel a momentary doubt of the applicability to the educational industry of any management worthy to be characterized as scientific. But when we learn of the marvelous results achieved in some material industries through the elimination of waste motions that were not detectable by the unaided eye and stop-watch, but which yielded to analysis made possible only through motion pictures, we are somewhat reassured, for we are impressed with the fact that great improvements, if not perfect efficiency, may arise from observations and measurements that are relatively crude. Scientific management is a method, characterized by its spirit quite as much as by its accuracy.

The essentials of this method consist in—

- (1) The measurement and comparison of comparable results;
- (2) The analysis and comparison of the conditions under which given results are secured—especially of the means and time employed in securing given results;
- (3) The consistent adoption and use of those means that justify themselves most fully by their results, abandoning those that fail so to justify themselves. The progressive improvement of a school system demands that these essentials of scientific management be applied incessantly.

Let us waste no time over the obvious but fruitless objection that the ultimate and real products of a school system—those products that are registered in the minds and hearts of the children that go out from the schools—are

immeasurable, and hence incomparable. There are mediate products in abundance that are measurable—products that every school system seeks to turn out because of the well-founded knowledge or belief that through these the desired ultimate products are achieved. Neither will we take any time to enumerate exhaustively those school products that can be measured and that are worth measuring, to describe suitable units of measurement, and their application, and to enlarge upon the improvements that may be effected in any school system through such measurements and the procedure that the results suggest.

Instead of abstract discussion—school systems are not improved by scholastic treatment—I want to bring before you a few concrete samples of a large amount of data that is being constantly secured and used in the actual process of applying principles of scientific management in the effort to improve one little school system; to suggest something of the significance, the value, and the use of this data; and to tell of some definite results of its use achieved and anticipated.

I know of no single adequate measure of the efficiency of a school, either absolute or relative. I know of no combination of measures by which the exact superiority of one school over another can be expressed in a single term. Several very important products or results of schools' work can be definitely measured, however; the efficiency of schools in these respects can be definitely compared; the conditions, the processes and means, which brought about these measurable results can be studied, and, so far as lies in the power of the school, those conditions, processes and means that show the largest measure of justification in results can be adopted. I refer to such results as the percentage of children of each year of age in the school district that the school enrolls; the average number of days' attendance secured annually from each child; the average length of time required for each child to do a given definite unit of work; the percentage of children of each age who are allowed to complete their schooling, with the average educational equipment of each; the percentage of children who are inspired to continue their education in higher schools; and the quality of the education that the school affords. This last, the quality of education afforded, is as important as it is difficult to measure. Definite examinations of pupils' knowledge of subjects are not without value, but are open to many serious and well-founded objections.

With conditions as they are in Newton, we

have, not a perfect nor a complete, but an exceedingly valuable comparative measure of the quality of education afforded by the several grammar schools. This measure is found in the qualitative success—that is, in the standing in subjects studied—of the pupils sent by the grammar schools to the high schools. It has long been a dominant aim of every Newton grammar school to send the largest possible percentage of its pupils into some of the numerous and widely varied high school courses—and every school is succeeding in this, none sending less than eighty, some sending almost one hundred per cent, of their pupils to the high school.

What is the average success of the representatives of the several grammar schools in their first year's work in the high school? Chart No. 1 answers this question for each of the first three-quarters of the school year 1911-12 and for the four years ending with the year 1911-12. This chart shows the relative success of the representatives of each school in all subjects and in the single subject of English, which is pursued by all first-year high school pupils—indeed, with rare exceptions by all high school pupils.

It is unnecessary to explain in detail how these respective quality measures—represented graphically—of the work of pupils of each grammar school are secured. Only comparative, no absolute, value is claimed for them. Of what practical use are they? They serve as a most powerful stimulus to analysis and study—study of the conditions and means, the expenditures of time, effort, and money, in the several schools that yield such varying results, to the end that every school may adopt those plans that are proving most effective. They stimulate study—intensely practical study—and wholesome rivalry, especially of the very people on whom the success of each school's representatives most depends, principal, teachers and pupils.

Just by way of illustration, let us make a few comparisons of the relative success of the products of the grammar schools in the light of some of the conditions involved. As the chart shows, the average quality of the work of pupils from school No. 9 surpasses that of every school, both in English and in all subjects in every one of the first three-quarters of the year 1911-12, and also in the average for four years.

No school has the distinction of standing at the bottom of the scale as consistently as No. 9 stands at the top. No. 11, although standing fairly well in English and in all subjects during the three-quarters of 1911-12, shows the lowest average standing in all subjects for the four years. In this general average for four years, No. 9 appears superior to No. 11 by more than seventeen per cent. The records show that in No. 9, although next to the smallest of all the grammar schools, with a total average membership in all eight grades of only 126, the per pupil cost for instruction averaged for a period of five years ending with 1911-12 but three and

one-half per cent higher than in No. 11, although the latter was next to the largest of all the grammar schools, with an average membership of 817. Moreover, the value of the plants occupied by these two schools is inversely as the success of their respective products in high school; the plant of No. 9 represents an investment of \$181 per pupil, based on average membership, while that of No. 11 represents an investment of \$411 per pupil reckoned on the same basis.

What is going to be done, what is being done, on the basis of such indisputable measurements and records as these? I have no time to tell more than this, that the quality of No. 11's work is improving and is going to improve still more, while that of No. 9 is by no means retrograding.

Elaborate courses of study on paper, showing with mathematical accuracy the numbers of periods per week and the number of years devoted to each subject, give no adequate conception of the actual educational employment of the secondary school youth of a community at any given time. If one week's work of every pupil now in the three Newton secondary schools could be recorded successively by a properly sensitized photographic plate, the composite picture that might be developed from this record would show the pursuit of the various subjects in the proportions graphically indicated on Chart No. 2. Resolving into one hundred equal parts the education that the Newton composite secondary school pupil is receiving just at this time, we find that one-tenth of one part is Greek, while seventeen parts are English; the remaining eighty-two and nine-tenths parts are made up in the proportions indicated of the seventeen subjects, from pattern-making to mathematics, that are recorded between Greek and English.

Is the Newton composite secondary school pupil being adequately prepared to meet the composite demands of that society which education should fit them to serve? Some help, at least, in answering this question may be found by studying this composite photograph, which should be complemented by a composite of the needs of social service, using this term in its broadest sense.

Academic discussion of educational values is as futile as it is fascinating. Which is more valuable, a course in Latin or a course in the machine shop? Which is more valuable, an acre of land or a loaf of bread? There are, there can be, no permanent, no absolute and universal answers to such questions as these; but there are, and there must be, temporary, relative, and local assignments of value to everything, material or spiritual, that man desires. So while we educational practitioners have been waiting on the educational theorists for an evaluation of the various subjects of actual or possible school curricula, we have been determining for our own schools definitely and minutely the relative values of every such subject. And

we have done this, for the most part, without knowing it! The school administrator simply cannot avoid assigning educational values every time he determines the expenditure of a dollar.

It may give us a shock—but it will be a wholesome one—to confront ourselves with the relative values that we have thus unconsciously assigned to various subjects. Chart No. 3 shows graphically the relative value assigned to-day to every subject taught in the Newton high school. It has been determined, wisely or unwisely, thoughtlessly or intelligently, that in that school just now five and nine-tenths pupil-recitations in Greek are of the same value as 23.8 pupil-recitations in French; that twelve pupil-recitations in science are equivalent in value to 19.2 pupil-recitations in English; and that it takes 41.7 pupil-recitations in vocal music to equal the value of 13.9 pupil-recitations in art.

Thus confronted, do we feel like denying the equivalency of these values? We cannot deny our responsibility for fixing them as they are. That is a wholesome feeling, if it leads to a wiser assignment of values in future. Greater wisdom in these assignments will come not by reference to any supposedly fixed inherent values in these subjects themselves, but from a study of local conditions and needs. I know nothing about the absolute value of a recitation in Greek as compared with a recitation in French or in English. I am convinced, however, by very concrete and quite local considerations that when the obligations of the present year expire, we ought to purchase no more Greek instruction at the rate of 5.9 pupil-recitations for a dollar. The price must go down, or we shall invest in something else.

Charts Nos. 4 and 5 show the relative values now assigned to the various subjects taught in the Newton Technical and the Newton Vocational schools, respectively.

Whether we desire to do it or not, we express our relative valuations of different subjects under given conditions by the percentage of our available funds that we expend for each, just as the housewife controlling a limited family budget expresses her valuations of the various necessities, luxuries and frivolities of existence, by the proportion of her budget that she devotes to each. The housewife is not seldom charged with large responsibilities for the high cost of living, on account of her lack of wisdom in handling the family budget; I gravely doubt that we educational administrators show any greater wisdom than the average housewife in the disposition of our always limited school budgets.

Unquestionably the first step toward improvement, both for the housewife and for the school administrator, is to secure definite, detailed, and significant knowledge of the actual disposition of the budget, whether of the family or of the school. Chart No. 6 shows the apportionment of every dollar now being expended for instruc-

tion in the Newton secondary school system. Of every dollar so expended, three-tenths of one cent goes for Greek, while 15.6 cents goes for English. We buy four-tenths of one cent's worth of instruction in vocal music while buying 12.1 cents' worth of instruction in mathematics. We think it best—or are we doing it without thinking?—to buy seven cents' worth of French for every three cents' worth of German; and we are buying no Spanish at all. We are spending five and one-tenth cents for instruction in the household arts—in preparation of girls for home-making—to six and six-tenths cents for instruction in commercial branches—in the preparation of girls and boys for clerical and business service.

Charts Nos. 7, 8 and 9 show the apportionment of every dollar expended for instruction in the Newton High, the Newton Technical, and the Newton Vocational schools, respectively.

Comparison of the costs of the same unit under different conditions is perhaps the best starting-point for a campaign to reduce unit costs or to improve the quality of units of service. To be of any practical value, such comparisons must be made of costs arising under conditions that can be thoroughly studied. Of what earthly use are our interminable comparisons of teachers' salaries and annual expenditures per pupil from one end of the country to the other, when we know nothing, when we attempt to find out nothing, when it might be practically impossible if we tried to get adequate knowledge, concerning the quantity and quality of teaching service rendered for which varying salaries are paid and the amount and character of instruction given on which per pupil costs are based?

Every school system presents within itself abundant opportunity for the comparison of unit costs; the conditions under which these costs arise are at hand, subject to any kind and degree of analysis and study that may be necessary. Chart No. 10 shows the cost of one pupil-recitation in certain subjects, each one of which is taught in two or more of the Newton secondary schools; this chart shows also the average cost per pupil-recitation, regardless of subject, in each of these schools.

Why is a pupil-recitation in English costing 7.2 cents in the Vocational School, while it costs only five cents in the Technical School? Is the "Vocational" English forty-four per cent superior to the "Technical" English, or forty-four per cent more difficult to secure? Why are we paying 80 per cent more in the Vocational than in the Technical School for the same unit of instruction in mathematics? Why does a pupil-recitation in science cost from fifty-five per cent to sixty-seven per cent more in the Newton High than in either of the other schools?

All the conditions under which these varying costs arise are at hand. By studying them we can answer these and scores of other similar questions which a comparative chart such as

No. 10 suggests. More than that, so far as the conditions are within our control, we can make changes which will vary costs and quality of service, to the end that we may secure a maximum of service at a minimum cost in every school and in every subject.

There are two phases of every practical problem of school administration, even of the details of classroom procedure; these are the financial and the educational. They are inseparable; the frequent, I may say the prevalent, effort to distinguish the problems of the school into financial or business on the one hand, and educational on the other, results in two groups of problems barren of significance. Those school boards who insist on reserving to themselves or committing to a special business manager, supposedly an expert, the business administration of a system of schools, while they impose on a superintendent, presumably an educational expert, the so-called professional administration of that same system of schools, and those superintendents who advocate this plan, or meekly acquiesce in it, give evidence of about as sound and comprehensive a grasp of the real problem of educational administration as the would-be manufacturer of shoes must have of that industry, who would put his factory in charge of two independent experts, one of whom knew all about shoes as a finished product, and all about the processes of their manufacture, but knew little, and was expected to know less, about costs, while the other knew nothing about shoes, but was a past master of business and finance.

The inseparability of the financial and educational aspects of school problems is forcibly illustrated by Chart No. 11. Equally well, this chart illustrates also the prime necessity of penetrating analysis as a means of revealing significant facts. At the top of the chart figures are given showing that in the Newton High School the average annual cost of classroom instruction was but \$1.33 higher per pupil in 1910-11 than it was seven years earlier. This slight advance, barely three per cent during a period of general and large rise in prices, might easily be taken as evidence of the constant and most careful scrutiny of every detail of costs. Such is not its true explanation, however; for that slight advance was more the result of accident than of cost-conscious planning in the organization and conduct of the school.

As the analyses in the center and at the bottom of the chart show, the slight increase of \$1.33 per pupil is the resultant of four factors, the variation in any one of which has tended to increase or to diminish the total cost per pupil by an amount of nearly two to more than four times that of the actual net increase. This actual net increase of \$1.33 per pupil was due to the fact that the combined effects of two of the four factors on which the total per pupil cost of high school instruction depends tended to reduce that total cost by the same amount, less

\$1.33, as the combined effects of the other two factors tended to raise it.

The significance, both financial and educational, of the facts that this analysis reveals is most striking. The increase of 1.7 recitations per week per teacher reduced the annual cost per pupil by \$3.55; this was equivalent to a saving for the school of nearly \$2,500, enough to pay for nearly 15,000 pupil recitations in expensive Greek. Did the teachers or the efficiency of their work suffer on account of this increase of fifteen minutes per day in their classroom service? If so, by how much? These are educational questions that may be separated—but only temporarily—from their financial bearings.

The increase of 1.9 pupils per recitation class further reduced the annual per pupil cost by \$3.66—equivalent to a saving of over \$2,500 for the school. Was the work any the less efficient on account of the size of classes averaging 24.7 pupils each than it was on the same account with classes averaging 22.8 pupils each? Another question to be answered primarily from the educational standpoint; but a question whose answer is no less significant financially than educationally.

An increase of barely six per cent in the average salary of teachers effected an increase of \$2.47 per pupil. If the average quality of service in the latter year was not inferior to that of the former, we may be satisfied that this slight increase was more than justified by the general rise of prices, teachers' salaries included, during the period under consideration.

By far the most potent factor in affecting costs was the increase in the average number of recitations per week per pupil. An increase of 2.4 recitations involved an increased expenditure of \$5.87 per pupil, or of more than \$4,000 for the school. Were the pupils better served with 20.1 recitations per week than they were with 17.7?*

What is the optimum number of recitations per week, on the average, for pupils in an academic high school? We may frankly confess that we do not know the answers to either of these questions, important alike educationally and financially. But we do know that we are constantly determining, and that we must continue to determine, the number of recitations per week that shall be given to our high school pupils; and we know, further, that our determination of this matter will affect, and we may easily find out exactly how much it will affect, our expenditures.

Fully conscious of these things, stimulated also by the necessity of reducing expenditures in some way, and further influenced by investigations which revealed that many pupils who were failing in one or more subjects were attempting to carry a number of recitations con-

*These averages of recitations per week do not include exercises in vocal music, physical and manual training and optional work in household economics, altogether averaging from two to three exercises per week per pupil, the higher number in the later year.

siderably larger than the comparatively high average for the school, we determined about two years ago to adopt measures that would probably result in a reduction in the average number of weekly recitations per pupil in the Newton High School. Accordingly a number of recitations per week, varying somewhat from course to course and from year to year, but nowhere exceeding seventeen, was established as "normal"; on taking up the work of a new year pupils were to be allowed to exceed the normal amount only on condition that their work of the previous year gave satisfactory warrant for expecting that they could carry more than the normal work successfully; furthermore, pupils undertaking more than the normal work were to have their work reduced to the normal by dropping a subject at any time after due warning that their work was unsatisfactory. This last requirement seemed to be justified on the ground that any pupil who is failing in his work must be doing so from one of two reasons, either because he is undertaking more than he can do well, or because he is not disposed to apply himself earnestly; in the former case, the remedy is obviously a reduction in the undertaking, in the latter case it seems scarcely less obvious that no more than a normal amount of expense should be incurred by the giving of subjects that the pupil is not really trying to master.

With some modifying details not necessary here to mention, the above rules were announced and explained to pupils and parents about two years ago and were put into effect the following September, that is in September, 1911. One effect was prompt and one result of this effect was easily measured; the average number of weekly recitations per pupil was reduced from 20.1, the number of the previous year, to 17.8, only one-tenth more than the average of 1903-04, and thereby the total expense for instruction was reduced by about \$4,100.

What educational gains or losses are resulting from the limitations imposed on the extent of a pupil's work? This is the important question that we are now trying to answer. I am convinced that no definite nor even reliable answer can be found in the mere opinions even of those who come in closest touch with the pupils concerned. A recent deliberate expression of opinion on the advantages and disadvantages of this plan of limiting the extent of a pupil's work was made by the principal and the heads of departments, after the plan had been in actual operation about one year and a half. The opinions so expressed were about equally divided for and against, with a slight tendency, on the whole, to favor the plan of limiting, and with a fairly strong demand that the plan be given further trial.

The first careful and detailed study of pupils' work under the two plans, the old plan—an indefinite plan, rather a custom, in accordance with which pupils who had done poor work for whatever reason were usually allowed, if not

actually encouraged, to undertake still more work at the beginning of a new year, with the hope that the ground lost in the past might be regained—and the new plan of limiting each pupil's work to the amount that he had given evidence of being able to do satisfactorily. The chief results of this study are shown on Chart No. 12.

This chart embodies the chief results of two sets of comparisons of the average pupil-performance under the old and under the new plans. In one case the average performance of a pupil in the sophomore class of 1910-11, the last year under the old plan, was compared with the average performance of a pupil in the sophomore class of 1911-12, the first year under the new plan. Consideration of the general school history of these two classes revealed no grounds for thinking that one was, on the whole, superior to the other in natural or acquired ability. The other comparison was made between the average performance of the same pupils under the two plans; that is, the performance of the sophomores of 1910-11, the last year under the old plan, was compared with the work of these same pupils as juniors in the following year, the first year of the new plan. In this last comparison the work was considered only of those pupils who were in the school throughout the sophomore and junior years.

The significant points of comparison in both these cases were these three: (1) the quantity of satisfactory work accomplished—that is, the number of "points" passed, or earned; (2) the quality of the satisfactory performance—that is, the average standing in subjects passed; and, (3) the percentage of waste—that is, the ratio of the number of points failed to the number of points earned.

The significance of these three points as tests of comparative efficiency are quite evident, if, for a moment, we regard as the object of the school the turning out of a maximum number of satisfactory points per pupil, of the highest quality, with a minimum of waste. Waste, as in any other productive industry, is to be avoided, as the cost of it must be added to the cost of the satisfactory product.

Without taking any time to go into details, these studies showed, as is represented on the chart, that in the comparison of the average performance of sophomores, those working under the new plan earned 1.72 or 9.11 per cent points less than did those under the old plan; that the percentage of waste was 1.45 per cent less under the new plan; and that there was a slight loss in quality—amounting to .07 per cent—under the new plan. The study showed further that the same pupils in their junior year earned under the new plan an average of 2.16, or 11.3 per cent, fewer points than in their sophomore year under the old plan; that their percentage of waste under the new plan was .47 per cent greater than under the old; and

(Continued on page 257)

THE EDUCATION OF THE COLORED PERSONS IN AMERICA

By WILLIAM ESTABROOK CHANCELLOR

Negro Blood

There is no colored race in America, save Indians and Orientals. The persons of color are not mostly pure Negro; nor are they, as individuals, mainly Negro.

The proportions are about as follows, viz.: Pure Negroes, ten per cent; Mulattoes, twenty-five per cent; Quadroons, forty per cent; Octo-roots, twenty per cent; Hexdecaroons and others discoverably Negroid, five per cent.

This opinion is based upon a considerable experience in Washington, the largest colored community upon the earth, upon visits to many parts of the South, and upon a large personal acquaintance with colored persons in the north. This experience has been largely deliberate upon my part, for several reasons, viz.:

1. My own paternal ancestors were Virginia slaveholders.

2. My wife was a grandniece of Harriet Beecher Stowe and of Henry Ward Beecher, whose services to the ultimate solution of the question of the proper political position of the colored persons in America were of immediate value to all concerned.

3. Many years ago I studied anthropology in Europe, and from that point of view have looked out upon life.

This study followed medical courses and the teaching of physiology for several years in America.

Of the blood of the colored persons in America, perhaps thirty-five per cent is Negro. What is the rest?

Debatable as the foregoing opinions are, when we come to the question of what "white" blood, so called, flows in the veins and arteries of colored persons, we enter upon pure controversy. I give only an estimate.

White Blood

The largest amount of white blood is Portuguese, next Moor (or Morisco), next Spanish, next Anglo-Saxon, next French, next Irish, some German and a little of other races. The Moor is not a Negro. Yet there are many colored persons in America whose ancestry is purely mixed Moor, Portuguese and Anglo-Saxon or other North European.

At least ten per cent of the colored persons here have more or less Indian blood, usually less than a quarter. Some of this Indian blood came from the West Indies.

The notion that in the United States so many millions are "white" and about one-eighth as many millions are "black" perfectly bars thinking—educational thinking, philanthropic thinking, religious, political and every other kind of thinking.

Millions of hexdecaroons and other "higher-dilution darkeys" have "crossed the line and come white." Many of these persons now do not know that they have any colored blood, for their parents or grandparents "married white" and kept absolute silence about themselves. I, who am descended from Pocahontas and Pocahontas, consider the agitation about a little color in the blood simply funny, as does every other F. F. V. man of this generation. According to the theory of eugenics, some of my children's children may be born Indian!

Variety of African Races

The man who talks about the psychology of the Negro in America, meaning thereby the colored man, betrays at once total ignorance of the anthropological situation. Africa is a vast continent, larger than all North America. The Moor and the Senegambian Negro are more different than a Puritan Yankee and a Creek Indian ever were. Yet the Moor is much blacker than many of the inland African Negroes of the highlands and plateaus. Blackness of the skin tells nothing of the purity of the blood. A colored person may be half German and yet be coal-black. We inherit specific traits of our ancestors; skin from one, structure of head from another, a special ability from a third.

Different Nations

Let me tell a story to illustrate this point.

A well-known American educator, then holding high official position, went with a certain colored leader to hear another colored leader speak. After his address at church, the white man asked the second leader to wait while he went forward to pay his respects at the pulpit stairs to the colored speaker, saying that he would be back in five minutes. He was delayed, and by his watch saw that the colored friend was departing in his carriage, even though he hailed the offended individual to wait a half-minute. Explanation? Quarrel between two Negroes? Not at all. One of those leaders is half Irish, the other probably at least three-quarters French, and his hot Gallic blood, stirred by envy and by jealousy, got the better of his temper and usually polite conduct. It was a quarrel between races, not within a race.

Another anecdote serves still further to illuminate the situation. This amusing incident happened to myself some years ago in Montgomery, Alabama. I had hired a rig—it was a real rig, assembled of broken-down wagon and harness and an aged and frail horse—at a tumble-down livery stable, and a small colored boy was driver. We came to a street intersection, where I happened to notice five or six "darkey

boys" upon one corner of the streets and three or four "darkey boys" upon the corner diagonally across. The former were playing craps, the latter, better dressed, were gazing upon them from the distance. I asked my driver why they were not all tossing craps together.

"Oh," he answered, "they're a different nation."

And so they were; the half-dozen were "yellow boys," and the three or four were "black boys." My driver was coal-black, and as smart as any boy out of pickaninnyhood has any right to be.

When, in 1906, I became superintendent of schools of the District of Columbia under the school reform statutes of May and June of that year, I had been in office only a fortnight when I was waited upon in the most dignified manner by nine colored preachers and lawyers of the District, including one of the colored members of the general board of education, and asked to support a bill in Congress to divide the pupils of the colored schools into two groups, the "browns" and the "brights," on the ground that the "brights" were morally, intellectually and socially superior to the "browns."

My reply was in two parts—the first that I had trouble enough already on hand to distinguish between the hexdecaroons and others who had not yet "crossed the line" and the true white with the "brights" who had "come white" successfully, and the second that up north whites and colored were not separated at all in school, and in consequence no such bill had any chance whatever of passing Congress and being signed by President Roosevelt.

Psychology of the Individual

Intermixture with white blood has not "elevated the Negro race"; quadroons, octoroos and hexdecaroos are not usually superior in ability and in character to blacks and mulattoes. In the study of colored persons, it is far more necessary than even in the case of white persons to know the ancestry. All quadroons, octoroos and hexdecaroos are exceedingly sensitive to their lineage. Often they claim to be descended upon the white side from distinguished persons, and in many cases there is no good reason to doubt the claims. Many of these light-colored persons come from ancestors none of whom was ever in slavery; and many a part-black, part-white owes his better strains of blood to the slave side. The man south or north who, in the second decade of the twentieth century, talks scornfully of the education of "niggers" and "coons" will get at nothing scientific or humanly profitable.

All of the foregoing is submitted in an effort to get the problem of the education of the colored persons in America into the minds of readers as being at once psychological and sociological in its nature. Hybrids whose ancestry has combined parents coming many degrees apart in latitude are complex and peculiar.

Where the blood of the part-white, part-black person came in part from parents who generation after generation had experienced northern winters with high winds, snow and desolation, there must be struggle between Scandinavia and Ethiopia in their souls. Physically, winter cold means larger lungs; morally, it means fortitude, and intellectually, it means foresight. Between the hand-to-mouth, care-free, disease-pursued, naked man of the African tropics and the forehanded, anxious, frost-strengthened and fur-clothed man of the Scandinavian region there has been set the gulf of winter famine—"Save food and make shelter or perish." Hunger and cold are the true lords of the North, parents of its masterful, because self-masterful, men.

Negroes Are Precocious in Childhood

To the tropics the black man owes two facts of his physiopsychical nature. Of these, the first is that he is precocious up to the age of puberty and that this age comes on apace, as compared with Teutons and Slavs. The mulatto is usually later than the pure Negro, and less precocious. Some quadroons and octoroos are very much like white persons in this respect. A "black pickaninny" of six years old is usually smarter than the "white kid" of the same age, and "the little yellow boy" is in between.

Short-Circuited Adolescence

The second distinctive fact of the physiopsychological nature of the black man is that his adolescent period is short. In a sense, the Negro short-circuits from childhood via puberty into manhood; and thereby gains and loses. He gains an early pragmatic maturity. At sixteen years of age he is as ready for work as the Anglo-Saxon at twenty or the Scandinavian at twenty-two. He loses most of the spiritual struggle of the white man, and never knows what it has meant to the white race and to the white person. In this respect the mulatto, the quadroon and the octoroon stand in stages of an advancing scale.

Climatic Changes

It is essential for Teutonic whites to see that for them to live in America, as compared with Scandinavia, is to deteriorate and to degenerate, and for the African blacks, in respect to their Negro blood, to see that to live in America is to have the opportunity of regeneration in a harder climate and a severer struggle for survival. In the course of ages American cloud and cold will bleach the Negro and yet toughen him; and American sun and heat will tan and soften the blond Teuton. The pubertal epoch will come later in the future colored man, and his adolescent period will lengthen; and that epoch will come earlier in the future white man, and his adolescent period will shorten.

Equilibrium Between Climate and Individual

Each process will continue until an equilibrium between the human beings here and their

local environment has been established. We of these transitional generations of climatic adjustment are suffering in this process.

All southern whites long for the cooler north in summer, and all northern colored persons long for the warmer winter in the south. Like invalids, they seek environmental agreeableness.

All of this helps to explain the sociological problem. Neither white nor black is yet racially "at home" in America. The white is more nearly ready to live at ease with nature in the north than in the south; and the black in the lower south than anywhere else. Neither white nor black is ready to live at ease in cities. Neither white nor black in America comes generally from city peoples.

City Life

Only the Slavs and the Jews are communal. They are recent importations mostly. And there is Slavic or Jewish blood in very few colored persons. The West and North European blood in Americans—still the predominant strain—is individualistic, self-reliant, independent, unsympathetic—perhaps "selfish." It can never thrive in cities. The Middle African blood in Negroes and Afro-Americans is tribal, and in a sense communal, though no savages or barbarians are communal in the sense that the Slavs are communal.

The sociological problem of the colored persons in America has, therefore, a mechanical phase—that of adjustment to town and city life.

Heredity of Color the Cause of Caste

But the organic quality of the sociological problem is more important. Blink at it as we may, color is caste. So long as we call it "class" and leave hope of escape by "rising," we shall be in turmoil. For the individual it is far better to accept color as caste, which leaves white and colored alike free in social inequality. In marriage, let color mate with color; then there can be no sorrow and no recrimination when, by Mendelian law, occasionally a child reverts to type. The quadroon's black baby may yet have an almost-white son.

The Right to Vote

This social caste should not touch the matter of political equality. It is quite impossible to educate colored boys in high aspiration while saying in fact, "You can never vote like a man."

These are the two tragic sorrows of colored persons: one that until caste is accepted north and south, there is a foolish hope of "crossing the line and coming white," that is, rising in the social scale. The knowledge that to marry white is to run the risk of having a black child restricts the birthrate; and no sensible man desires to see any part of the American population reduced in numbers. The other tragic sorrow, springing, not like the first, from their

own folly and the occasional folly of misguided white men or women, is the failure to secure (or, if one prefers, the deprivation of) the ballot.

The giving of the ballot to freedmen by revengeful northern politicians, seeking absolute power in the south, was a crime; but 1913 is not 1867. Because, by sheer right of numbers as well as of larger cultural contributions, this is "white man's America," is a reason rather for giving the suffrage to colored persons than for withholding it. The powerful can afford to be just. Minority representation is essential to justice and also to ultimate wisdom.

University Educational Opportunity

Socially, the colored persons may be ensphered as a body within "white man's America." And yet the colored man may properly vote his will in respect to law and to law officers.

Colordom may be conceived itself as a social sphere more or less self-sufficient. So conceived, it becomes apparent that every kind of profession, occupation, calling and other economic activity needs to be developed by systematic education. It is shortsighted, indeed, for white politicians, for the immediate advantage of white taxpayers, to starve the colored public schools. Whether my neighbor be white or colored, it is to my interest that he be intelligent, moral and prosperous. It is farsighted, indeed, for philanthropists to try to establish universities, colleges and institutes for colored persons. And it is a fact of overwhelming import to the future of America that the best single educational institution of its general character in this land is Hampton Institute, at Norfolk, Virginia, with Tuskegee Institute a close second, each being for the education of colored youth and men and women.

Yet, because liberty is more important than prosperity, it is to be regretted that there is no great liberal university for colored persons. A few find their way into northern colleges and universities; but the few are far too few.

[In a succeeding article the curriculum of education for colored persons will be outlined, proposing some radical differences from prevalent practice.]

Rapid City, South Dakota, proposes to undertake a new plan to raise funds for a rural school: In addition to each school a small farm is to be purchased, which is to be worked by the parents, teachers and pupils during the school term through "School farm working bees." The income from the school farm is to be used for school purposes. This plan offers an opportunity to teach agriculture practically. It also provides for social gatherings. This plan is not uncommon in the southern states, where cotton may be conveniently raised, nor is it uncommon in the south for the farmhouse to be the home of the teacher during his term of employment.

DEVELOPING A SCHOOL SYSTEM

BY SUPERINTENDENT CHARLES S. MEEK, BOISE, IDAHO

I have been requested to survey the process by which the newer school activities have been developed in the city of Boise, Idaho.

Four years ago in organization, facilities and equipment the schools of Boise were not superior to those of most villages and towns in the United States. The school city at that time numbered about 20,000. Since that time it has had a normal but not unusual growth. The board of education decided that the time had arrived for the beginning of a modern city system. A physical director for the high school, a playground director for the grades and a school nurse were employed. To facilitate closer supervision of instruction, a grammar grade supervisor was secured, and one for the primary grades. Manual training, cooking, and sewing were added to the elementary schools. To conduct this work, four special teachers were employed.

In the high school a four years' commercial course was added, two years of shop work, two of drafting, two of cooking, two of sewing, two of music, including history of music, theory and harmony, chorus, orchestra and band; two of art, two of dramatic reading, and four years of agriculture. To conduct these newer school activities twenty-two additional special teachers have in the past three years been employed and are this year being paid a total of \$33,350. During this time the traditional courses in the high school have also been enlarged and made more varied.

Sixteen units of credit are required for graduation. These sixteen units may be selected from a curriculum which offers just fifty-three units. To properly distribute students into the various branches of so varied a curriculum requires a very liberal scheme of election. The problem to be solved was to see that every student should have liberty broad enough to fit his course to his own vocational needs and at the same time prevent him from spreading his energies over an inarticulated field that leads to nothing. The scheme selected to meet this situation is to require of all students three years of English. To prevent scattered effort with such a minimum of required work, each student must select one of the teachers as his advisor throughout his course. That advisor consults the parent or guardian, gets all the information possible and selects the program in the light of the results of this investigation.

Such a scheme will only work when all the teachers are in hearty sympathy with the newer and broader aim of high school work. Along this line we have had no difficulty. All the teachers are in hearty co-operation with the lib-

eral policy of the system and are conscientious in carefully investigating the vocational aims of the separate groups of students for whom they are sponsors.

In all industrial lines of school activities the most difficult problem is to give pupils the training that functions with real industrial life. Such examples will best illustrate how we attempt to meet this difficulty.

Our commercial department takes charge of the purchase, sale and payment of all books and supplies sold to the students. We hope to turn over to the students in that department the purchase, distribution and payment of all the supplies of the district, to have them keep all the books of the district, write all the warrants; in fact, manage the disbursement of \$235,000 annually. Of course, teachers must carefully check all transactions. But no more time is required to check a real transaction than an artificial one. The boys in our shops do all the repairs on our buildings and are given credit for summer work done under and approved by a competent contractor or builder. Any job of work done in the community by shop boys and approved by our superintendent will mean so many hours of credit in school. The boys in the drafting department have planned more than fifteen residences already built in the city. Their exhibits in machine and architectural drafting have taken prizes in competition with professional draftsmen at the state fair. The plans for our Washington school building are the product of students in this department. They are now drawing, tracing and blue printing plans for a greenhouse we are to build. These plans include the drawings for the heating and plumbing systems to be installed. They are also producing all the plans and specifications for our Lowell school, to be built this year. This work must all be approved by our own superintendent of buildings, who has built many of the largest business buildings in the city. Thus, we will soon have school buildings costing nearly \$100,000, constructed without employing professional architects. A number of our boys are employed by the United States Government as draftsmen on the five-million-dollar irrigation dam now in process of construction in the mountains above our city. The professional work they do there will be accepted as credits toward graduation from our high school. One of the boys who last year graduated from this department and is now associated with his father as a building contractor, came to the school the other day to get the plans and specifications for the Lowell school. He intends to submit to the board of education a bid for the con-

struction of this building. If he gets the contract, there will be almost as much joy among the students as there was last Christmas day when their football team, on their own field from which the sage brush had been but recently removed, defeated the champions of the sixteen Chicago high schools.

Most of the people of southern Idaho are interested in some specialized line of agriculture or horticulture. Agriculture and horticulture, therefore, occupy a more conspicuous place in our curriculum than any other line of industrial work. The four years' course consists of Basic Agronomy, Practical Horticulture, Animal Husbandry, Farm Mechanics, and Farm Management. We have more than one hundred students in this department, most of whom are boys, though the course is popular among girl students. Two teachers now devote their time exclusively to this department. An additional instructor will be employed next year. Regular classroom and laboratory instruction is supplemented by much practical field experience in as many as possible of the specialized lines of this industry. Students plant, prune, spray and cultivate commercial orchards, work for wages in commercial packing-houses. Arrangements have been made with implement-houses whereby students may go into the field and demonstrate farm machinery to prospective purchasers. Boys working under expert superintendents in orchards or in ranches, fruit-packing houses in the summer, will, upon favorable report from the superintendent, be given credit for such work. The managers of all the stock farms in the valley gladly bring their stock on to the school grounds and give lectures on stock judging before the classes in animal husbandry. During the state fair all of the judges accompany the classes to their special departments and demonstrate the points upon which the stock is standardized. Dairymen have gladly set apart whatever portion of their herd is requested by the department for demonstrations in feeding, care and milk production. The school has for three years owned a dozen pens of fine poultry, through the care of which much interest has been aroused among both the boys and girls in the poultry industry. The students and teachers of the schools co-operated with local breeders in organizing the state poultry show at which many of the prize exhibits were owned by students. A year ago the board of education leased the thirty acres of land inside the mile track of the state fair grounds for a demonstration farm. A practical farmer was employed to work under the instructors of the high school. Teams were procured, machinery purchased, and everything possible is now being done to make that tract of land the best example of intensive farming the Boise Valley affords. The experts in the United States Reclamation Department give instructions in all problems of irrigation. The Agricultural Department of the State University, the seed dealers and seed

growers are all interested and render valuable assistance. Our program is to make this an outdoor laboratory for the agricultural department and also to make it self-sustaining by the sale of products. The program for future development includes the addition of a commercial greenhouse and model dairy.

Just as soon as an athletic director for the high school and playground director for the grades were employed and organized recreation given a distinct place in the curriculum for all the schools, the need of a central athletic field and playground was felt. The co-operation of all the clubs, the Chamber of Commerce, the City Council and Juvenile Court was procured and a campaign for parks and playgrounds was launched. Just as soon as enough carefully nourished public sentiment was aroused to make the transaction a safe one, the board of education paid, out of the school funds, \$16,000 for forty acres of wooded land on the shore of the Boise river, and easily accessible for all the schools of the city. One thousand dollars have since been paid a landscape artist for plans for improvement, which include baseball and football fields, tennis courts, children's playgrounds, and outdoor gymnasium, and an auditorium. Three thousand dollars have already been spent out of the school funds in developing the land according to the plans and specifications. The future development of this school park, as well as the supervision of the demonstration farm, will be placed in the hands of the teachers of agriculture in the high school; one of the two teachers has a master's degree in forestry from Yale and two years of service in the United States Forestry Department. He will superintend the planting and care of trees and shrubs, the making of roads, swimming lake, wading pools, etc. In developing the park and cultivating the farm all the labor possible will be done by students in the agricultural department during the school years. The teachers will be retained during the summer and all students who will work under their direction during the summer vacation, eight hours a day for eight weeks, will be given one year of credit in agriculture, or for four weeks' work, one-half year of credit. We hope to enroll at least fifty students in this continuation school.

These examples are given to illustrate our attempts to make industrial education as conducted by our public schools valuable training for the vocations of real life. The remarkable growth of the high school attendance is evidence that we are, in a measure, successful in our endeavor. Four years ago the total enrollment in the high school was four hundred. This year we will enroll nine hundred. Four years ago forty-four were graduated, the largest class in the history of the school up to that date. This year we will graduate one hundred and thirty. During the same period, the total enrollment of all the schools has increased twenty-five per cent, the high school has increased one hundred

and twenty-two per cent, and the number graduating has trebled. More than one-fifth of the pupils enrolled in the entire system are now in the high school. No artificial methods have been adopted to retain pupils in school. That class of students which formerly dropped out of school before they entered upon or completed the high school course is finding in the varied lines of the industrial courses now offered training that they and their parents recognize as valuable for their chosen vocations in life.

During the period in which industrial activities have been introduced and developed the traditional lines of high school work have not been neglected. A four years' course in German and two years of French have been added. Two years of Spanish will next year be available for students who wish it. The teaching force in all lines has been strengthened, library and laboratory facilities have been enlarged.

The number of students preparing for and entering college each year increases. The only drift away from the college preparatory courses is from that class of students who formerly in a spiritless way served time, because the studies available afforded them no vitalizing motive. These and many more who formerly never entered the high school are now in the industrial departments working with enthusiasm, energy and efficiency.

Public education as now conducted in Boise is much more expensive than formerly. On teachers' salaries alone the budget has increased a trifle over sixty-four per cent in four years, while the school enrollment has increased but twenty-five per cent. The regular maintenance expenses have increased in a greater proportion than teachers' salaries, since equipment for industrial activities costs much more than that for general culture subjects. During the same period \$300,000 has been expended for new buildings and \$25,000 for the purchase and improvement of grounds.

Boise has an active and virile taxpayers' league which has recently assailed every form of the state, county and city taxes, but not one public attack, through the press or from the political platform, has been made against school taxes. A crusade against school taxes has been avoided by keeping the public constantly informed as to school expenditures. The patrons have been educated as well as the children. Every educator of note who has visited the city has appeared before the Commercial Club and has talked to the business men about the policy of the school authorities. The recently employed special teachers have time after time explained or demonstrated their work before mothers' clubs in the afternoon and patrons' meetings in the evening.

Last spring an industrial exhibit was visited by more than four thousand patrons. A school festival was given in which twelve hundred costumed children demonstrated their school dances and games before seven thousand spectators.

The business men of the city asked the public schools to give the feature parade of the Irrigation Festival which occurred in Boise last fall. Thirty large floats, all equipped for brilliant electrical display, were designed by the art department of the high school, traced and blue printed by the drafting department, built on the school grounds by the students in manual training, equipped for electrical lighting by the physics classes, and then distributed to the various buildings for decoration. The costumes for eighteen hundred children who participated in the parade were designed and made under the supervision of the sewing teachers in the high school and grades. This parade was escorted by four troops of United States cavalry and three bands. The Citizens' Committee paid the expenses, but not one dollar was charged for labor. The memory of that service which the teachers rendered the community is yet so vivid that complaint of school taxes would not strike a popular chord.

The school authorities have realized that their enlargements were expensive and not along conventional lines. Care has therefore been taken to procure expert advice on administration policies and educational results. Three years ago Commissioner Kendall, of New Jersey, at that time superintendent at Indianapolis, visited the schools and made a report to the board of education. Last month Dr. Judd, of the University of Chicago, Dr. Elliott, of the University of Wisconsin, and Dr. Strayer, of Teachers College, Columbia, visited the schools for one week and made a report. Both reports have been printed and distributed amongst the patrons of the schools and the taxpayers. These reports have been of great value to the school administration in the community, and have satisfied the taxpayers that their money has been judiciously expended.

The people will stand increased expenditures and will co-operate in enlarging the school facilities, provided the results of that increased outlay are commensurate with the sacrifice.

SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT IN THE SCHOOLS

(Continued from page 251)

that the average quality of passable achievement under the new plan was 2.15 per cent lower than under the old.

At most, I think the results of this study should be regarded merely as indicative; I do not consider that it satisfactorily proves anything regarding the relative superiority of the two plans of administration that we are trying to test. The most that can be said unconditionally of these results is that they give no warrant whatever for concluding that our plan of limiting the amount of work that a pupil may undertake is superior—as judged by the quantity and quality of achievement, and the net waste involved—to the former plan. Further studies of this question are now being made.

SCHOOL CREDIT FOR HOME WORK

BY SUPERINTENDENT L. R. ALDERMAN, SALEM, OREGON

When I arrived at the town of about two thousand people where I had been engaged to teach, the chairman of the school board accompanied me to the schoolhouse, on the Friday before my new school was to open. Among the other bits of advice he gave me was that one particular boy should be expelled, upon the first provocation. The boy had given trouble the year before, and should not be allowed to contaminate the whole school. He had stolen things and had been in a street fight. For two years running he had been expelled at the beginning of school. The boy's father and mother were good people, but they had no control over the boy. This was not very encouraging to me, as I had not had such an experience before, in fact had never taught in a town so large. I was looking for the boy the next Monday morning. He was pointed out to me as he came down the long walk to the schoolhouse. Instinctively I studied him, as he came up the steps, measuring him with my eye as if to get an estimate of his physical strength, as well as of his mental makeup. He was large for his age, carried his head low, and looked up under the brim of his hat. He looked at me as if to say, "I do not like you, nor any who are in your sissy business." He chose a seat in the back corner of the room, signed his name in a big, scrawly hand, and gave his age as seventeen. It seemed to be generally understood that he would make some trouble, so as to be expelled the first day.

During my vacation I had read "Jean Mitchell's School," and I remembered Jean Mitchell had scrubbed her schoolroom. I had noticed on the Friday before that the schoolroom had not been scrubbed, nor the windows cleaned, so I said after the morning recess, "How many of you would be willing to help scrub out the schoolroom this afternoon? As this is to be our home for the year, we want it clean." All seemed willing to help, and this boy threw up his head, and took a good look at me as if he thought I had some little glimmer of intelligence. The pupils were to bring brooms, mops and pails from home. Harry brought a broom and mop, and a package of Gold Dust, almost full, which he had stolen from his mother. He scrubbed harder than any other boy in the school. He seemed to be a leader when it came to doing things with his hands. I was much delighted to see in him a willingness to help. I found out that he was totally lost when it came to studying grammar and fractions. These were not in his line, and unless the school took into account some active work it could not reach Harry. We had no manual training

in the school, but we had football, baseball and gardening. In all of these he excelled. I became convinced that in order to reach a boy like Harry the school would have to broaden out, and give credit for his activities.

Next year in high school there was a girl who had a great deal of time to run the streets. I would see her going to the post-office and to the train every day. She hardly ever had her lessons. I clearly saw I was not reaching her. She was a large, healthy, good-looking, happy-go-lucky girl. Going home one night from school with one of the teachers, I was told that Mary's mother was coming down the street. As I felt she and I had a big job on our hands, I wanted to meet her. So I crossed the street, and came face to face with her. I saw in the face of the faded little woman signs of one of life's tragedies that we see so often, in over-worked, disappointed mothers. Her daughter had broken away from home influences. I realized that Mary was as cruel as the Spartan boy she and I had read about in history, who had been taught to slap his mother in the face that he might be hardened for battle. This was her first year in high school. I realized that the nebular hypothesis and quadratic equations could not reach the real Mary, nor the real Harry, who was also in this school. That evening I thought it all over, planning how I could come to the aid of Mary's mother. The next morning before the algebra class I said, "How many of you girls swept a floor or made a bed before coming to school?" Some hands, not Mary's. "How many of you helped get breakfast this morning?" Some hands, not Mary's. "How many helped get supper last night?" Some hands, not Mary's. "None of you need to be told that the best friend you have or ever will have, perhaps, is your mother? Let us see what we can do to show our appreciation for our parents." I was struck with the real interest the class showed. "To-morrow," I said, "I am going to give you ten problems. Five will be in the book, and the other five will be out of the book. The five out of the book will be (1) help get supper to-night; (2) help do the supper dishes; (3) help get breakfast; (4) sweep a floor; (5) make a bed." I also gave certain duties to the boys. I said, "These tasks are going to count the same as algebra problems." The next morning I was delighted to see the eagerness with which they responded; they had worked the five problems in the book and the five problems out of the book. Mary continued holding up her hand after I had asked how many had worked all the problems. I said, "Mary, what is the matter with your hand?"

She said she had worked five problems in advance in the book. I had never associated the working of problems in advance with Mary.

The tasks were changed during the year. We had at different times given credit for home work, the same as for school work. During the discussion at an institute meeting a very good principal asked me, "If we give credit in algebra for home duties, what will become of the algebra?" I never have been able to answer his question. Once I was arguing with the residents of a small district that I wished would consolidate with another district. A man rose and said he believed in consolidation in general, but this particular district had the graveyard deed to it. If this district's identity was lost in consolidation, what would become of the graveyard? Of course, we all knew the graveyard would stay where it was, and some thought after all that might be the best place for it. The district did not consolidate.

At the next county election, the Republican party was short of material, and I was elected county superintendent. My belief in encouraging home work had become a working conviction by this time, and I am sure I bored some very good teachers nearly to the point of death talking about it. I was asked, "Why should school credit be given for work not done in school? Let school credit be given for school work, and home credit for home work. It is dishonest to give credit at school for things done at home. The more we can keep home out of the school, the better it is." Some good, staid teachers looked at me as if I had broken the ten commandments, and I had some qualms of conscience, and wondered if I could not bring myself to a condition of being satisfied with seeing school credit given only for work done in school, of being content if the subjects in the books were taught, and of not caring if the children did spend their time on the streets.

On my visits to the country schools at first I made speeches upon the importance of education, how it would pay the pupils to be well prepared before taking up the duties of life. I prided myself upon my ability to make this seem wonderfully ponderous to them. But I noticed that nothing happened. They looked dazed and glanced often at the clock to see if it were not nearly time for school to close. But when I asked them to do something, to make bird houses for their backyards, or for the school yard, they were all alert, and I had over nine hundred bird houses built by the children of our county that year. I received many letters from the children telling of their work. One little letter has always stayed with me. "Mr. Alderman, Dear Friend: I am in the third grade. I like to go to school. My mother and I built a bird house. Two bluebirds live in it. I am going to marry a lawyer. Good-bye." I always wondered why she wanted to marry a lawyer, and live in a town, when she was living in the most beautiful country in the world.

One day as I was visiting a country school, I saw a boy taking up a collection in his hat. I was told they were taking this up to buy popcorn, as one of the boys was going to leave town Saturday. I asked why they did not grow their own popcorn. I knew it would grow there, for I was born and raised in that part of the country. I told them I would give five dollars to the boy or girl who could raise the best popcorn that year. This seemed to interest them. I asked how many had raised watermelons. I was told nobody did, for the boys in the neighborhood were so bad about stealing them. I asked, "If everybody were raising watermelons who would there be to steal them?" All you have to do to get a grin the full width of a child's face is to mention watermelons. Going home that night in my buggy some ten miles, I concluded we would have a school fair and give prizes for watermelons and muskmelons. When talking it over with my wife that night, we added vegetables, jellies, bread, canned fruit and sewing to the list for which prizes should be given at the fair. A trip down one side of the business street and up another, and I had all the prizes needed to advertise the fair in the fall. It was not long before a father brought his boy to the office to learn more about the contest. The father patted the boy on his head, and said, "John has a garden. He has pumpkins as big as a bushel basket." How John's eyes sparkled at the praise of his father! They went out and got into the wagon, and I could imagine the conversation John and his father had on the way home. It seemed worth while for us to go into home work and give some credit for it. The fair was a great success, and it has grown with every year. This last year, its seventh, there were four thousand exhibits. The crowd is the largest that ever gathers at the county seat.

The first year of the fair I heard high school girls say as they looked at the long rows of bread, "I am going to learn to make bread." As they looked at the rows of ruby and amber jellies, "I am going to learn to make jelly." I had mothers call me in as I drove past their homes, to show me the sewing of their daughters. We had a larger attendance at our parents' meetings after the fair was started. It became evident that we must co-operate along the line of the activities of the child if we wished to secure the co-operation of the parents. They could not co-operate along the line of decimal fractions, infinitives and participles. People I had not known were interested in education at all would comment upon the interest the children in the neighborhood were taking in things. In order to raise better products they had to read bulletins. It created a real interest upon which the teachers could build in educational progress.

I was next elected city superintendent of a city of about 10,000 people, and found that the children were just as eager for activity as they

were in the smaller towns and in the country. We had school gardens for the seventh and eighth grades, and did the work during school time, on the condition that the children would keep up their school work. This they did for the sake of working in the gardens. Certain teachers were willing to take into account home activities in the school. We had sewing taught. We had a bread day. Hundreds of people came to see the loaves of bread the children were able to make under the guidance of their mothers. We had bird-house day. Nearly five hundred bird houses, some of them wonderfully made, were exhibited by children who had learned from their fathers how to handle a hammer, and how to saw off the end of a board. I have heard teachers say that it is too bad the schools do not have accommodations for industrial work, but every girl lives in a place where there is a stove and utensils. Every country or small-town boy lives where there is a saw, hammer and an axe. If every school will furnish the child with a desire to make something, he will surprise you with his ability to make it. If you can create a desire in a girl to make an apron or a dress or a skirt, she will find someone to show her how to make it. I have noticed that the girls in some of our larger schools in the domestic science class were perfectly happy making loaves of bread, tucking the little loaves into shining new pans and putting them into the gas oven. They would watch eagerly when they were taken out, delighted with the beautiful, well-shaped loaves of a perfect brown. I have seen the same girls look with scorn at the big cook-stove oven at home, and the large, unpolished tins. I have seen mothers make the bread, and cook the meals, as the girls of the domestic science class were too busy with their school work, which was supposed to mean so much to their future, to apply any of the results learned. I knew a teacher in a manual training class who spent six months teaching the boys how to use a chisel, a plane and boring bits. The superintendent had to have the truant officer compel these boys to attend the manual training class. They wanted to make something. Children do not like to play at life, they want to live life. I have seen girls shrink from making little models in sewing, and the boys look as if they were afraid to say out loud what they were thinking while they were learning to use tools, just to use them. I have seen the bored looks upon the faces of pupils engaged in writing essays to be passed in to the teacher, and sent to the waste-basket. I have seen the animated looks on the pupils' faces when they were learning to write letters which were to go to some real place, and would bring back a reply.

And I have seen the enthusiasm of pupils in school where the school credit for home work was made an important feature. Where there were three such schools in Oregon in the spring of 1912, there are hundreds this year. Some

give credit for home work as for studies, and use the home work marks in averaging up the total standings. Others make a contest of it, giving holidays or other rewards. Credits can be given for any home tasks, such as building fires in the morning, milking a cow, cleaning out barn, splitting and carrying in wood, gathering eggs, wiping dishes, tending flowers, sweeping floors, getting to bed by nine o'clock, brushing one's teeth, feeding chickens, caring for pigs, cows, horses, etc. A certain number of minutes is allowed for each task. Parents are asked to sign statements verifying the amount of time spent in such duties. It is a rule in one of the schools that any pupil who has earned 600 minutes may at the discretion of the teacher have a holiday. Samples of home work are often brought to school and placed on exhibition. The parents encourage this by coming to the schoolhouse when these exhibits are made, and the children, by seeing each other work, learn to imitate the best.

I think the best compliment I have ever received, and one that I did not fully appreciate at the time, was given when a man brought his boy to school and asked me to watch him, and see what we could make of him. Unconsciously almost I would watch him in class and out of class, and found it was but a short time before I had much to talk about with the father. I meet him occasionally now, and we have a common interest in the activities of the son. I have seen teachers ask for the co-operation of the parents, have seen the parents visit the schools, and try to look interested. I have seen them yawn, and when they rose to go have heard they say they had been much interested and would call again, but they never came again, for it is impossible for parents and teachers to co-operate upon a subject-matter in books or methods of instruction, or to any great extent in courses of reading. But every parent is willing to co-operate to the limit along the line of the activities and the real interests of the child. I knew a teacher who, when asked what she taught, answered, "Boys and girls," and she meant the whole boy and the whole girl, the activities out of school as well as the activities in school. I know another teacher, the whole content of whose answer was that she taught arithmetic, reading, writing, and spelling.

A friend brought his boy to me and asked me to help him plan his high school course, as he had just completed the eighth grade. I asked him if he had talked the matter over with his eighth grade teacher. I had occasion to meet the teacher not long after, and asked him to tell me something about the boy, and for suggestions about the course he should choose. He told me the boy had never given him any trouble; he had gotten 93 in arithmetic, and 96 in grammar. But this did not throw any light on the subject of the boy's bent, or what course of study he should take up in high school.

It seems to me it is worth while to find some

common ground upon which the parent and teacher can co-operate. It seems to me this common ground is along the line of habit-building by means of the activities of the child. What really counts in school or out is what habits are being established. Facts, formulæ and rules will be forgotten. But the habits which are formed are woven into the character. The child that does not have a habit of industry established by the time he is sixteen or eighteen is very apt to become a parasite. There are many children who go through our schools who, being naturally bright, do not find it necessary to become industrious. They get their lessons through hearing the other pupils, or from the questions asked, or by a few glimpses at the book. In life they are going to need bodily industry as well as mental industry. The habit of being industrious will be of untold value to them. One great trouble is that we are apt to look at the matter from the point of view of the school, as though the school were the end in itself. The school is simply the helper of the home, and only when the two work together can our dreams come true.

THE SELECTION AND TENURE OF OFFICE OF ASSISTANT SUPERIN- TENDENTS AND SUPERVISORS

J. M. Gwinn, Superintendent of Schools, New Orleans, La.

To enable me to present the facts in regard to the selection and tenure of office of assistant superintendents and supervisors, I sent a questionnaire to the superintendents of thirty-one of the largest cities in the United States. I received replies from twenty-seven cities. The questionnaire called for information concerning the number of assistant superintendents and supervisors of various kinds; the conditions of eligibility for appointment of these officers; how their qualifications were determined; the method of appointment, whether by the school board alone, the superintendent alone or by the board on the nomination of the superintendent; the length of the term of office under the law, or rules of the school board and in practice in the various cities.

All of the twenty-seven cities replying, except Buffalo, Detroit, Louisville, Salt Lake and St. Paul, report from one to thirty-four assistant superintendents. I am informed that in Louisville, and probably in Detroit, assistant superintendents will soon be appointed. All cities reported the employment of from five to thirty-nine supervisors exclusive, in some instances, of assistant supervisors. Thirteen cities report supervisors of primary grades, nine supervisors of writing, twenty-two supervisors of physical education, eighteen supervisors of cooking and sewing, twenty-two have supervisors of manual training and industrial work, six supervisors of evening schools, eight supervisors of kindergartens, four cities have supervisors of special schools and activities and practically all report supervisors of music and drawing.

Among the supervisors reported were those for German in one city, social centers in two cities and grammar grades in two cities.

In eight of the twenty-two cities reporting assistant superintendents some legal conditions of eligibility are mentioned. It is significant that in sixty-four per cent of the cities no legal limitation whatsoever is set on the qualifications of assistant superintendents, while in the eight instances noted above the legal requirements in regard to qualifications are worded in such general terms as "must hold a teacher's certificate" or "must be practical educator." The most definite statement in regard to eligibility is found in the law of New York city, where associate or district superintendents are required to be college graduates with five years of successful experience in teaching or supervision or in lieu of the college education must hold a principal's license obtained through an examination with an additional five years of experience in teaching or supervision.

It is evident that the makers of school laws and of the rules and regulations of the school board have felt that the qualifications of assistant superintendents are best left to the judgment of the superintendent, who should not be hampered by legal or other restrictions. The superintendent is expected to know what qualifications are requisite in any assistant superintendent, and his judgment is practically the sole basis for determining the qualifications of his assistants.

But seven cities require any examination of supervisors and in two of these the examination is for a teacher's certificate only. In twenty-one out of the twenty-seven cities the judgment of the superintendent is depended upon to determine the eligibility of supervisors.

In eighteen of the twenty-two cities reporting assistant superintendents the assistant superintendents are elected by the school board on the nomination of the superintendent. In three cities the board alone appoints assistant superintendents and in one city the superintendent has full authority to appoint the assistants. The appointment of supervisors is made by the board on the nomination of the superintendent in twenty-two of the twenty-seven cities, by the board alone in two cities and by the superintendent alone in three cities.

In the matter of the tenure of office of assistant superintendents, ten cities report the term fixed or limited by law, other cities limit the term by rule of the board. In seven cities the term is indefinite, in nine cities the length of each term is one year, in one city two years, in two cities four years and in two instances the term is six years. In practical operation of the rules the tenure is reported as for life in all but one city. Supervisors are appointed for indefinite terms in ten of the twenty-seven cities, in twelve the individual term is one year. In one city the term is three years and in one it is six years. Of the twenty-three reporting the point twenty-two report that in practice supervisors are kept in office for a life term.

CURRENT EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE

An article in the Popular Science Monthly, entitled Some Random Thoughts Concerning College Conditions, contains some bits of shrewd sense, with certain pessimistic inclinations. As an example of the latter is the following:

Boys are not so well trained at eighteen as they were fifty years ago at fourteen. They do not think, they do not know how to think; the modern method seems intended to prevent all necessity for mental exertion and the textbooks are as easy as padded crutches. The mental drill which should be given to the youthful pupil has to be given in the freshman class at college.

This charging of the deficiencies of pupils back to preparatory schools, from grammar to primary, from primary to kindergarten, and thence back to the parents, is getting a little tiresome. Here is another extract from the same article which we have been waiting for some one to say:

A vast amount of sympathy is wasted on men who work their way through college as though they were a superior type of the race. No man deserves any credit for undergoing hardships in order to secure what he believes will yield great returns. The gold-hunters of the Klondike did that and asked neither praise nor sympathy.

A year or so ago college men took great credit to themselves on account of the publication of statistics which are thus roughly handled:

The latest achievement is calculation of the proportion of college men recorded in "Who's Who." The statistics are correct, but the deductions are imperfect. No note is made of the fact that the plan of the American "Who's Who" leads the editor to select chiefly men whose occupation presupposes college or university work. A search for truth would have led not to "Who's Who" but to biographical catalogues of college alumni. That study might have led to discovery of conditions on which the canvasser would have been more than unwilling to enlarge. Certainly, he would have come to wonder why it is that "Who's Who" is so small a volume, as there are so many thousands in this country who own college diplomas.

The chief random indictment of modern education is this:

Truly the scope of college work is expanding; dress-making and folk dancing have attained the rank of university studies and, judging from past occurrences, there is every reason to suppose that they, too, will find their place along with other studies in literature and pure science among qualifications for the Ph.D. As that degree has now an actual commercial value to the possessor, the college should make its requirements not too severe. But one cannot contemplate this amazing increase in the number of candidates for degrees without

apprehension. It was not without reason that a foreign visitor recently spoke of the American as "education-mad."

The Lure of the Farm

Governor Eberhart of Minnesota tells in World's Work what he is trying to do to make farm life more attractive and thus stop the drift of population to the city.

The method of operation may be summed up in a few words—much larger returns from the soil and increase of social advantages in the country through the enlargement of the various functions of the schoolhouses. . . . To-day Minnesota has 61 consolidated rural schools, besides 30 agricultural high schools and about 150 applications for institutions of this kind are pending. The idea has spread so rapidly that it is difficult to obtain teachers. Among the first things provided for in the consolidated schools were classes for farmers themselves at which they could have the benefit of the latest discoveries of science in relation to tilling the soil. Our present plan is to have the school boards own a number of moving picture films which may be rented to other schools for a nominal fee. In the warmer months the boys and young men will be trained in athletic sports and competition between neighboring towns or schools fostered to the utmost degree.

A New Idea in State Schools That Will Build Up Character and Body as Well as Brain, in the Craftsman, is a plea for practical education but with emphasis on character.

Our schools teach pupils from books so they may not have to do manual work; or if trade schools offering manual training, they send children out as mechanics, but do not develop the qualities which would enable them to rise against unscrupulous labor leaders. Our children do not toil enough, and thus are not happy. Our schools do too much for the child, and as a result the child can do little for himself.

Preserved Smith writes of The Unity of Knowledge and the Curriculum in the Educational Review. These selected sentences are worth preserving:

Before the bar of the public let me forthwith plead guilty and confess that I am one of that commonest type of modern criminals, or paranoiacs, a college re-former.

The curriculum resembles a picture puzzle rather than a work of art.

Surely it would be easier to reduce Paradise Lost to a limerick than to epitomize all knowledge in thirty lectures.

Many a tree of knowledge, at present barren, would blossom with new life and vigor by means of cross-fertilization with its fellows.

BOOKS OF THE DAY

Lincoln, the Man of the People. Little Lives of Great Men. By William H. Mace, Professor of History in Syracuse University, author of Methods in History, School History of the United States and Stories of Heroism. With four halftone illustrations from photographs and fifty-eight pictures by Homer W. Colby. 191 pages. Price, 35 cents. Rand, McNally & Co., New York.

This is a series which already includes Napoleon, Lincoln and Cromwell, and has in preparation Washington and Frederick the Great.

There is no small art required to put a satisfactory biography of these great men in the small compass of less than two hundred coarsely printed pages. Mr. Mace has shown an adaptation for his work, especially in the selection of material. The author's style is not so commendable, the short, choppy sentences being a defect, even where a little conjunctive welding would scarcely have added a word to the text.

Presumably the book is for children, but it is not put in baby talk, and it is good reading for adults. The mechanical work on the little volume is excellent, and the type, cuts and fly-page map are especially to be commended.

Both Sides of 100 Public Questions. Briefly Debated, with Affirmative and Negative References. By Edwin DuBois Shurter, Professor of Public Speaking in the University of Texas, and Carl Cleveland Taylor, Instructor of Public Speaking at the University of Texas. 260 pages. Price, \$1.25. Hinds, Noble and Eldridge, New York.

In this volume the high school and college debaters will find, first, a statement of the question for debate; second, a brief statement of the arguments on both sides; third, references to books and periodicals. The material furnished is suggestive rather than exhaustive, and is for that reason all the more valuable for school use.

The Guardians of the Columbia. By J. H. Williams. Describing Northwestern mountain scenery, with 210 illustrations. Edition de luxe. Price, \$2.50 net, postage 16 cents; library edition, \$1.50 net, postage 16 cents; news-stand edition, 75 cents net, postage 8 cents. J. H. Williams, Tacoma, Washington.

An essential book for any one contemplating traveling through the northwest, and an excellent book for schools, colleges and libraries. In this volume the author has given a full description of Indian legends on the Columbia river, ice-caves and canyons on Mt. Adams, and heroic rescues on Mt. St. Helen. This volume will give Americans a better appreciation of the splendor and worth of their own land.

The Mountain That Was "God." By J. H. Williams. Price and publisher same as the preceding.

The author tells in an interesting way about the great peak which the Indians named Tacoma, but which is officially called Rainier. Many of the illustrations show wide reaches of wonderful country, ice-caves, torrents and glaciers. Lovers of the mountains in all parts of the country will be interested in this volume.

The Autobiography of Benjamin Franklin. Canterbury Classics. Edited by George B. Aiton, State Inspector of High Schools, Minneapolis, Minn. Illustrated by Homer W. Colby. 314 pages. Price, 45 cents. Rand, McNally & Co., Chicago.

An edition in excellent type and on good paper which follows the avowed idea of the authors of the series "to avoid breaking the charm of the story by irrelevant and burdensome information." The spelling is modernized, the lines numbered and the text is supplemented by an additional narrative of Franklin's life, a chronological table, an account of the vicissitudes of the manuscript of the autobiography and by notes not prolix.

Higher Algebra. By Herbert E. Hawkes, Ph.D., Professor of Mathematics in Columbia University. 220 pages. Price, \$1.40. Ginn & Co., Boston.

This book is especially intended for technical schools and emphasizes the applications of algebra. The concise introductory review and unusually thorough treatment of the quadratic equation are excellent features. In fact, the topics emphasized, such as numerical computations, checks, graphical methods, use of tables, and the solution of specific problems are among the most vital features of the subject for any student.

The Continents and Their People: Asia. A Supplementary Geography. By James Franklin Chamberlain, Ed.B. S.B., Department of Geography, State Normal School, Los Angeles, California, and Arthur Henry Chamberlain, B.S., A.M., formerly professor of education, Throop Polytechnic Institute, Pasadena, California. 198 pages. Price, 55 cents net. The Macmillan Company, New York.

On the map of Asia in this book, the yellow mass of China—some way China always is colored yellow in the geographies—bears the strangely new legend, "Republic of China." Otherwise this book differs from the text of our childhood. We are not abjured to locate Cape Cambodia, describe the course of the Lena, and bound Persia, but we are informed of the people of these places, their food, clothing and amusements. This is as it should be, and the authors have done their work well in the writing of the new geography.

The Teaching of History. Riverside Educational Monographs. By Ernest C. Hartwell, M.A., Superintendent of Schools, Petoskey, Michigan. 71 pages. Price, 35 cents. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston.

Editor Henry Suzzalo says that this book presents clearly "the details of effective teaching technique." A sample of technique is the teacher's orders to his pupils:

1. Provide yourself with an envelope of small cards or pieces of notepaper. Label each with the subject of the lesson and the date of its preparation. These envelopes should be always at hand during your study and preparation. They should be preserved and filed from day to day.

There are fourteen other orders.

Most of our modern novels are written merely to amuse; some may have the further purpose of doing good in the world. Whether Mrs. Brewster had one or both of these ends in view in writing her quaint New England story of "Rhody" we cannot say, but certain it is that the volume has resulted in good to one home at least. By chance a copy of the book fell into the hands of a young Philadelphia woman who had been estranged from her husband and been separated from him for some months. The story of "Rhody" made a strong appeal to her, with the result that a reconciliation was effected between her and her husband and they are now living together as happily as ever. Published by George W. Jacobs & Co., Philadelphia.

One thousand four hundred and forty-five farmers attended "the short course" of the Oregon State Agricultural College this spring.

ANDREW S. DRAPER

A strong man passes in the death of Andrew S. Draper. His introduction to the educational world came in 1886, when, as a lawyer, a judge and eminently a politician, he won out in the legislature of New York for the state superintendency of public instruction. He beat William J. Milne, then principal of the Genesee Normal School. On Doctor Milne the schoolmen of the state were united, in him they would have had an admirable head; in Judge Draper they found, to their surprise, a genius. He knew the political situation thoroughly; he learned the rest to the last letter.

Superintendent Draper's first and notable and characteristic victory was in instituting the uniform requirements for a license to teach. When the bill to that end was vetoed by Governor Hill, Superintendent Draper achieved his object without law. There was where he was great.

Later at Cleveland and at the University of Illinois Mr. Draper became a national character and returned to his native state to head the unified system of state control. His eight years as commissioner of education, little hampered by the rapid changes of political power in the state, have rounded out a remarkable career. He has died in the work and full of honor.

Huntington, Indiana, will have a public manual training summer school for six weeks. There will be two classes each day of two hours each; and a fee of three dollars for the term will be required.

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LONDON

GEORGE W. HOLDEN

George W. Holden, well-known as president of the Holden patent book cover company, died at his home in Springfield, Mass., on April 28th. Mr. Holden was born in Rutland, September 14, 1840. While he was very young his parents moved to Dayton, O., to live. He was educated in the public schools and high school of Dayton. In 1856 he went to Worcester and founded the industry of manufacturing writing ink, which is still continued by the Sanford ink concern of Chicago.

In 1869 he invented the first adjustable book cover and patented the device the following year. He from time to time took out other patents on book covers, and was for many years the largest manufacturer of this kind of goods in the country. In 1886 he moved his business to Springfield, and under the name of the Holden Patent Book Cover Company continued it to the time of his death.

He always took a keen interest in public education and spared no effort within his means and power to improve the public school system. He was a member of the Economic Club of Springfield and of the American Civic Association, and was interested in the work of those organizations and others of a philanthropic nature.—*Springfield Republican*.

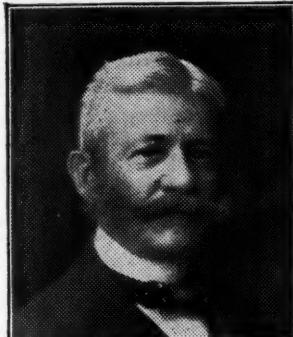
Doctor R. H. Nelson, medical inspector of Missoula, Mont., has recently examined 192 children in one school;

of these, 67 had no cavities in their permanent teeth, while 10 had already lost one or more permanent teeth. It is probable that very few other schools competently examined would show nearly so favorable a situation; and yet even this is bad enough. In eastern cities not one pupil in ten has sound teeth.

One thousand alumni of the University of Michigan have petitioned the state legislature to do away with the large board of education by ward election at Detroit and all other cities above 50,000 population, and to substitute a board of seven members to be elected at large. Doctor Chas. E. Chadsey is city superintendent.

There are 226,000 one-room rural schoolhouses in America, of which 5,000 are of logs. Their annual enrollment is 60 per cent of all American school pupils, while their attendance is but 51 per cent. The urban enrollment is 40 per cent, while the attendance is 49 per cent. Better rural schools is evidently the greatest national need in American education.

An examination of applicants for license as kindergarten teacher in the city of New York will be held by the Board of Examiners on Monday and Tuesday, June 2 and 3, 1913, beginning at 9:00 a. m. each day, at the New York Training School for Teachers, 120th street, west of Seventh avenue, borough of Manhattan. A circular of information may be obtained upon application to the Department of Education, Park avenue and Fifty-ninth street, New York.



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SCHOOL LEGISLATION OF 1913

From about a thousand titles we compile this list of the more important bills now or recently before the legislatures of various states. They show the general trend and some local tendencies. In nearly every legislature that has been in session this year some form of textbook control has been proposed, generally state adoption, sometimes state publication. Pension bills are quite as common; and the attention given to industrial and vocational education is also in evidence.

California easily wins in the contest to introduce the largest number of educational bills. The titles under that state here given are taken from a list of over one hundred; and the millennium will come by legal authority when in California extravagant dress in high schools is prohibited, social science is promoted, and the state lecturer on morals gets to talking. The coming of this glad time can be celebrated on their proposed "gold-discovery day."

This is a partial catalogue of bills introduced merely; some of them are dead.

ARKANSAS

Authorizing school boards in certain counties to furnish textbooks free.

Authorizing establishment of kindergartens. Providing for uniform textbooks.

CALIFORNIA

Establishing civic centers in public school-houses.

Commissioners of education shall revise and publish textbooks.

School boards may prohibit extravagant dress in high school.

Promoting education on social science.

Establishing state normal school in Humboldt county.

Creating a teacher's pension fund.

Inheritance taxes in excess of \$250,000 shall be paid to teachers' pension fund.

Establishing a state normal school at Santa Rosa.

Authorizing employment of lecturer on moral education.

Requiring kindergarten instruction.

Celebration of "Gold discovery day" in schools.

Compulsory attendance between ages of six and fifteen.

Teachers of beginners shall have had two years' experience and shall rank in salary with teachers of highest grade.

Directing preference for textbooks written in California.

Elementary road building may be taught.

Establishing a state normal school at Lodi. Separate schools for colored children.

Authorizing certain cities to establish parent schools.

Authorizing instruction in road building.



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CONNECTICUT

Retiring superannuated teachers on pensions. Towns may conduct model schools for training teachers.

Establishment of vocational schools.

Authorizing a new building for the state normal school at New Britain.

INDIANA

Providing for uniform textbooks in high schools.

Requiring medical inspection of pupils.

Providing for dental inspection of pupils.

Encouraging vocational education.

Monthly teachers' institutes on Saturdays.

Raising compulsory attendance age to sixteen.

Pensions for superannuated and disabled teachers.

Establishing three additional state normal schools.

Providing free textbooks for rural schools.

Establishing a state farm for defectives.

Requiring that agriculture be taught in public schools.

Prohibiting dances in public schools and by societies thereof.

Schools must be closed on legal holidays.

Requiring county uniformity of textbooks.

KANSAS

Creating a state textbook commission.

Providing for township high schools.

Providing for moral and humane education.

Raising the minimum school age from five to six years.

MAINE

Instruction in thrift in the public schools.

Providing for instruction in road building and improvement.

MISSOURI

Establishing a demonstrating center for teaching agriculture to negroes.

Providing for free textbooks.

Schoolhouses may be used for discussion of questions to be voted upon.

Schools shall be conducted for eight months.

Providing for a state textbook commission.

Providing for state uniformity of textbooks.

Creating an educational investigating commission.

MONTANA

Enacting an entire new school code, drawn by a commission created in 1911 by act of the legislature for the purpose of making a general revision and codification of the school laws.

NEBRASKA

Minimum school term of seven months.

Minimum school term of nine months.

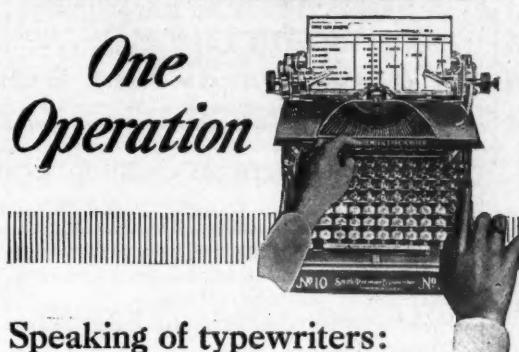
County superintendents must have taught three years.

Music required in public schools.

County superintendents must hold first-grade certificate and have taught twenty-seven months.

Establishing courses in agriculture in state normal schools.

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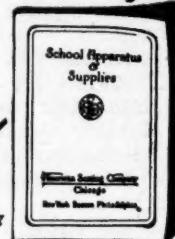
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pelled to attend school.

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Fixes compulsory attendance age at seven to
fifteen.

NEW MEXICO

Regulating the use of common drinking cups.
Providing for free textbooks.

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teaching at Santa Fe.

Establishing a state industrial school.

Establishing the Spanish-American normal
school at Taos.

Regulating canvassing by correspondence
schools, business colleges, and commercial de-
partments.

Requiring the governor to appoint at least

one woman on each of the boards of state institu-
tions.

Establishing a normal school at Clayton.

Establishing a normal school at Portales.

NEW YORK

Establishing a normal school at Liberty, Sul-
livan county.

Reduced fares on railroads for children in
New York city.

NORTH DAKOTA

Prohibiting the use of public drinking cups.
Creating a teachers' retirement fund.
Creating a state textbook commission and
providing for uniform textbooks.

OHIO

Boards shall provide courses in German on
petition of forty children's parents.

Authorizing boards to provide athletic fields
and playgrounds.

Creating a state textbook commission.

Prohibiting the manufacture and sale of ciga-
rettes.

Relating to uniform textbooks.

OREGON

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RHODE ISLAND

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To secure the privilege of evening schools.

To secure the continuous conducting of public schools.

TENNESSEE

Compulsory attendance of all children between eight and fourteen.

Defining qualifications of teachers and fixing uniform method of certification.

WASHINGTON

Establishing a teachers' retirement fund.

Providing for vocational, industrial, trade, and continuation schools as parts of the public school system of the state.

Requiring the flag to be saluted once a week.

WEST VIRGINIA

Requiring state to furnish free textbooks.

Fixing minimum salary for teachers.

Districts not having high schools shall pay tuition of pupils going to other districts.

Abolishing the common drinking cup.

WISCONSIN

Requiring moral instruction.

Establishing normal school in northeastern part of the state.

Locating a normal school at Rhinelander.

Peace day will be celebrated in schools throughout the United States this year. Although introduced but a few years ago, this special school day in behalf of international peace is now regularly celebrated in many American schools, and the indications are that its observance this year will be extended. Since May 18, the day set aside as peace day, falls on Sunday, the school will probably hold their exercises on the nearest school day.

The United States Bureau of Education has just issued a peace day bulletin for 1913, containing, besides a suggested program for the day, a number of short articles on different phases of the international peace movement, information about the various organizations working for peace, and a collection of appropriate poems and prose quotations. This bulletin may be obtained by application to the bureau.

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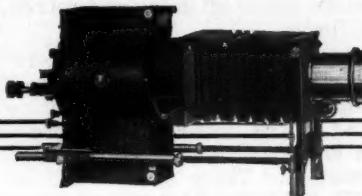
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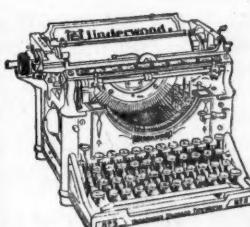
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RAILROAD RATES FOR SALT LAKE CITY

Trans-Continental Passenger Association.—The rates from the north Pacific coast points have not yet been announced, but will be in time for the next bulletin.

California lines have authorized for the meeting a round-trip fare of \$40.00 from San Francisco and Los Angeles; a \$46.00 fare from San Diego to Salt Lake City and return; and proportionate fares from other California points. Tickets will be sold July 1-6, going transit limit, fifteen days, final return limit, three months from date of sale, with stop-overs within those limits at all points in both directions, except that stop-overs will not be permitted in California on the going trip.

Western Passenger Association.—Tickets will be on sale daily at the following points, during June and July, good to return before October 31, at the rates indicated: Chicago, \$43.00; St. Paul and Minneapolis, \$40.00; Sioux City, \$34.40; St. Louis, \$38.00; Omaha and Kansas City, \$30.50; Denver, \$22.50. These tickets will not require validation. Stop-overs will be permitted at all points on going and return trip within final limit.

Central Passenger Association.—There will be sold within the territory of the Central Passenger Association exchange tickets, using the rates granted by the Western Passenger Association as a basis, and adding two cents a mile in each direction. These tickets will be exchanged at Chicago, St. Louis, or at any western gateway of the Central Passenger Association, for regular tickets issued by the Western Passenger Association.

Trunk Line Association.—The roads in this territory will sell, on July 1, 2 and 3, exchange tickets, charging one and one-half fare within their territory added to the rate made by the Central Passenger Association.

New England Passenger Association.—The New England roads will sell, on July 1, 2 and 3, a round-trip ticket at one and one-half fare within their territory, added to the rate offered by the Trunk Line Association.

Southwestern Passenger Association.—This association will take final action on the matter in the near future, but it is expected that the rates offered will be as favorable as the other associations have granted.

Southeastern Passenger Association.—Action will be taken on the question in the near future by this association.

These rates are as low as will be granted for any other organization this summer.

Yellowstone Park Rates.—On the same dates, and under the same conditions as have been given for the Salt Lake City rates, round-trip tickets will be sold to Yellowstone Park from Chicago for \$44.50, from St. Louis for \$42.00, and from Omaha and Kansas City for \$32.00.

The cost of a trip through the park for hotel and stage accommodations varies, according to the stay which one makes, from \$35.00 to \$57.50. Any ticket agent will be glad to fur-

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nish detailed information on this point. If you contemplate taking the trip, buy the through ticket and save money.

Glacier National Park.—Round-trip tickets to Glacier National Park will be sold, on the same dates and terms as the Salt Lake City tickets, at a rate of \$47.50 from Chicago, and \$45.00 from St. Louis.

Pacific Coast Rates.—Many of our members desire to go to the coast this summer, taking in the meeting on the going trip. For all such it will be cheaper to take advantage of the following rates, which are offered at the times indicated. To San Francisco, Los Angeles, and San Diego, tickets will be on sale at Chicago from June 30 to July 7, by the usual direct routes, good to return until August 31, at \$65.00 for the round trip. Corresponding rates will be given from other points in the territory. On the same dates, tickets will be on sale to San Francisco, returning via Portland, at \$82.50 for the round trip. From June 22-29, round-trip tickets will be on sale from Chicago to Portland and Seattle, via the usual direct routes, at \$65.00, the return limit being August 22. The other railroad associations will sell exchange tickets for these rates on the same corresponding bases as have been indicated for the Salt Lake City rates. These tickets have stop-over privileges on both going and coming trips within the final limit.

D. W. SPRINGER,
Secretary National Education Association.

The educational publishing houses in Chicago are gradually moving into the new Twenty-second street district, where quite a colony is already established. This location, which is on a direct route from "downtown" to the University of Chicago, is exceptionally well suited to this line of business, as it provides for an abundance of fresh air, unrestricted light, and a quiet environment. It also affords room for the construction of buildings especially adapted to the publishing business. One of the latest to join the new colony is the enterprising firm of Atkinson, Mentzer & Co., who have just taken possession of a new and well-equipped building of their own at 2210-14 South Park avenue, overlooking Lake Michigan.

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